

HIGHROADS OF HISTORY

UNIVERSITY
OF VICTORIA
July 27

SIXTH BOOK



ROYAL
SCHOOL
SERIES

THOMAS NELSON AND SONS LTD

166

THE ROYAL SCHOOL SERIES

Highroads of History

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Book VI.—Modern Britain
(1688 to 1918)

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Modern Britain (1688-1918).

I. THE BILL OF RIGHTS.

1. To-day we will visit that noble London street known as Whitehall. From Trafalgar Square, dominated by the Nelson Column which a grateful nation has erected to the memory of its greatest sailor, Whitehall runs southward towards the approaches to Westminster Abbey and the Houses of Parliament. Practically its whole western side is occupied by Government offices, conspicuous amongst which are the Old Admiralty, and the Horse Guards sentinelled by two imposing Guardsmen. On the eastern side stands the Banqueting Hall, the historic building which we have specially come to see.

2. Between the spot where we are now standing and the river stood York House, the splendid residence in which Cardinal Wolsey lived in the day of his magnificence. When the cardinal was disgraced, Henry the Eighth seized the place, and under its new name, Whitehall, it became the residence of the Court. All successive kings and queens resided in it, until the year 1698, when it was burnt down, and "our Court of St. James" became the official seat of

the sovereign. In the reign of James the First, Inigo Jones, the great architect, planned a new palace, which was to be the finest edifice of the kind in Europe. The only part of his design carried out was the Banqueting Hall, before which we now stand. Happily it escaped the fire which destroyed the rest of the palace.

3. As we stand in Whitehall we are in the midst of the mother-city of our vast Empire, and are surrounded by the great State departments which wisely and faithfully administer the public affairs of the country. Only a short walk away is the palace in which the Mother of Parliaments legislates according to the declared will of the people. In this appropriate spot, let us recall the great day on which the English nation accomplished that Revolution which secured its freedom for all time.

4. It is the thirteenth of February in the year of grace 1689. All London is agog with excitement. Trumpets sound and kettle-drums roll as the Garter King of Arms, in tabard and plumed hat, rides up to the gate of Whitehall, followed by officials carrying the maces of the two Houses of Parliament, the Lord Chancellor and the Speaker, the chief officers of State, and a long train of coaches filled with noblemen and gentlemen. Then in loud, clear tones he proclaims the Prince and Princess of Orange King and Queen of England, and charges all Englishmen to bear, from that moment, true allegiance to the new sovereigns. He concludes by praying that God, who has already wrought so signal a deliverance for Church and Nation, will bless William and Mary with a long and happy reign.

5. Loud cheers break forth, and the procession re-forms



THE BANQUETING HALL, WHITEHALL.

Built by Inigo Jones in the reign of James the First ; now handed over to the Royal United Service Institution as a museum. From an opening in the wall, probably between the upper and lower central windows, Charles the First stepped on to the scaffold, Jan. 30, 1649.

and winds its way along the Strand to Temple Bar. The streets, the balconies, the very housetops are crowded with gazers, and all the steeples from the Abbey to the Tower ring out a joyous peal. The proclamation is repeated at Temple Bar and in front of the Royal Exchange, amidst the shouts of rejoicing citizens and the din of trumpets.

6. In the evening every window from Whitechapel to Piccadilly is illuminated. The State rooms of the palace are thrown open, and are filled with a brilliant company of courtiers eager to see and do homage to their new sovereigns. The features of the Prince of Orange are familiar to them from his portraits, but now for the first time most of them

see him in the flesh, and note his slender, feeble frame, his lofty forehead, his aquiline nose, bright eyes, morose expression, and pale, thin cheeks deeply furrowed by sickness and care. They cannot fail to note, even in this scene of gaiety, his cold, reserved manner and his lack of kingly grace. The new queen, however, charms all beholders. She is beautiful, winning, and gracious, with a good heart, an excellent disposition, and an affection for her sullen husband which nothing can daunt. It is clear, from the first, that Mary's popularity will be great, and that William, though he may be respected, will never be loved by his new subjects.

7. A thoughtful citizen standing outside Whitehall on the evening of this auspicious day could not but reflect on the "strange, eventful history" of the Stuart kings, now barred for ever from the British throne. He would recall James the First feasting in this very hall, and expounding in the ears of his son Charles his extraordinary doctrine of "statecraft," his belief in his divine right to rule and to suspend the laws of the land at his pleasure. Then his thoughts would turn to the stormy reign of "martyred Charles," who obstinately held by these hated doctrines, and ruthlessly destroyed the liberties of the people, until, goaded into rebellion, they rose in arms and for seven years waged war against him. Then he would glance up at the space between the two central windows of the hall, and imagine that he saw the king once more step through an opening in the wall to the black-draped scaffold, and lay his comely head on the block.

8. While the gay lights glittered in the windows of the palace, and the populace cheered itself hoarse with joy, our

reflective citizen would probably think of the strong but harsh and cheerless rule of "Old Noll," and of the blight that fell on "Merrie England" when the swords of the Ironsides alone kept peace in the kingdom. Nevertheless, he would recall with pride the prosperity which the nation enjoyed under Cromwell, and the mingled fear and respect which she then inspired abroad.

9. Then our citizen's thoughts would dwell upon that glad May day, when a similar rejoicing crowd greeted the second Charles as he returned in triumph from exile and resumed the sceptre of his forefathers. Not without a blush of shame would he think of the wickedness of the Court, the shameful waste of public money, the dire disgrace that sobered and angered the nation when the roar of Dutch guns was heard in London, and the enemy burnt the shipping in the Medway. A hotter flush would come to his cheek when he remembered that Charles had sold himself to the French king, and in return for a pitiful pension had plotted to restore the Roman Catholic Church, and to rob the nation of those liberties which it cherished better than life itself.

10. Then finally our citizen would recall the last Stuart king, James the Second. Two short but fateful months ago he lay within these very walls. Now he was an exile, living on the bounty of the French king, and his son-in-law reigned in his stead. Charles had let "I dare not" wait upon "I would;" James, in his obstinate blindness, had risked all and lost all in the hopeless endeavour to enforce his own will on both Church and State. The Dutchman was welcome; he was the saviour of the country. Such, we

may assume, would be the reflections of a London citizen standing outside Whitehall on the evening of February 13, 1689.

11. The liberties of the land were indeed secured, for no future British king would dare to tread the paths which the Stuarts had trod to their destruction. Divine right was dead and buried. William and Mary now ruled in England by virtue of a solemn contract made between themselves and their subjects. Before the crown was offered to them they were required to assent to a Declaration of Rights, which branded as illegal the pretensions of the Stuarts, such as suspending certain laws or the execution of them, levying taxes, erecting Church courts, and keeping up a standing army in time of peace without the consent of Parliament.

12. The Declaration also asserted anew the national liberties, such as the right of the subject to petition the king, the calling together of frequent Parliaments, and established the rule that no Roman Catholic should sit on the throne of England. Only when William and Mary accepted these principles were they proclaimed king and queen. The Declaration was afterwards, with some slight amendments, passed as a regular Act of Parliament, and is generally known as the Bill of Rights. It is the third great charter of British liberty, the other two being Magna Carta, and the Petition of Right passed in the reign of Charles the First.



PASS OF KILLIECRANKIE.

2. KILLIECRANKIE.

1. "To the Lords of Convention 'twas Claver'se who spoke,
'Ere the king's crown goes down there are crowns to be broke ;
Then each Cavalier who loves honour and me
Let him follow the bonnets of Bonnie Dundee.' "

This is the opening verse of a well-known and spirited ballad written by Sir Walter Scott more than a century after the events which it commemorates took place. Though the song is comparatively modern, it will serve to introduce us to the fierce and tumultuous period which followed the accession of William and Mary to the English throne.

2. There was no tumult or disturbance worthy of the name in England. It is true that the Assembly which established William and Mary on the throne was not strictly speaking a Parliament ; for no Parliament can be legitimately summoned without the sanction of the reigning sovereign,

and in theory James was still king of the land. Nevertheless the "Convention" which called William and Mary to the throne was as truly representative of the English people as any Parliament of the time. There was, of course, a strong party of Jacobites, or supporters of James, in the country, and some of the best men in the land—including five of the famous "seven bishops"—firmly refused to take the oath of allegiance to the new sovereigns. Nevertheless, William and Mary were the choice of the nation, and the English Jacobites were not strong enough to challenge that choice on the battlefield.

3. In Ireland and in Scotland, however, there was strong opposition to the new sovereigns. The majority of the people of Ireland were then, as they are now, ardent Catholics; and during the brief reign of James they had obtained the upper hand in the country. Ireland immediately declared for the fugitive king; and barely a month after the proclamation of William and Mary, James landed in that country with a number of French officers, ten thousand stands of arms, and a treasure of £112,000, all the gift of Lewis the Fourteenth. In the next lesson we shall deal with the course of events in Ireland. Here we must confine ourselves to Scotland.

4. Charles the Second and James the Second had treated the Scottish people with great cruelty. The Covenanters had been harried and persecuted mercilessly, though nothing could break down their obstinate resistance. The Episcopalian Church had been re-established, and both Charles and James had striven to force the whole nation into it. Three hundred ministers gave up their livings rather than submit.

Laws were passed heavily fining all who absented themselves from public worship in their own parish churches, and brutal troopers rode up and down the country shooting and hanging, torturing and pillaging those who would not forswear the Covenant. The ejected ministers held their "conventicles" on lonely hillsides, and there the Covenanters gathered for worship, while sentinels kept watch for the dreaded troopers.

5. Persecution at last drove the Covenanters to arms. After a victory at Drumclog they were utterly defeated at Bothwell Brig, and a terribly cruel time of shooting and hanging, torture and transportation set in. The most prominent agent in this persecution was the "Bonnie Dundee" of Sir Walter Scott's song. "Bonnie Dundee" was John Graham of Claverhouse, who was created Viscount Dundee by James the Second shortly before William's invasion of England. Dundee was an accomplished soldier, and a writer of the time speaks of him as "a man of good parts and some very valuable virtues." Nevertheless, he was utterly ruthless in carrying out what he conceived to be his duty, and the story of his dealings with the Covenanters forms one of the blackest pages in British history. The Covenanters hated him bitterly, and actually believed that he had sold himself to the Evil One. His troopers, on the other hand, idolized him. On the eve of his flight James made Dundee commander of the troops in Scotland.

6. When James fled the kingdom Scotland was in a very disturbed state. A convention of the Estates or Scottish Parliament was summoned, and when it met

there appeared to be many Jacobites in the assembly. A letter was read from James couched in such terms that his best supporters were ashamed of him, and the waverers instantly went over to the side of William. The exiled king expressed no sorrow for his past offences, and gave no promise of improvement in the future. "It was plain that adversity had taught James neither wisdom nor mercy. All was obstinacy, cruelty, insolence. A pardon was promised to those traitors who should return to their allegiance within a fortnight. Against all others unsparing vengeance was denounced." This letter turned the tide in favour of William. It was the death-blow to the cause of James in the Lowlands of Scotland.

7. The Covenanters from the west had flocked into Edinburgh to support the Convention, and were only waiting for the drums to beat to array themselves for battle. Dundee saw that no time was to be lost. After urging the governor of Edinburgh Castle to hold out for James, he galloped off with fifty troopers to Stirling. Learning that Mackay, with the forces of the Convention, was close on his heels, he withdrew into the Highlands. Meanwhile, William and Mary had been proclaimed with sound of trumpet at the Cross of Edinburgh.

8. The Highlands at this time were remote from civilization. The "wild Scotch," as they were called, were regarded by the Lowlanders as little better than cut-throats and savages. The Lowlanders feared and hated the uncouth plunderers from the hills, who swept down upon their pastures, driving off their cattle, and leaving behind them slaughtered men and blazing roof-trees. Rarely did

Highlanders and Lowlanders meet, even at fair or market, without swords being drawn and blood being shed. Amidst their wild and rugged mountains the Highlanders still lived in clans, yielding no allegiance save to their chiefs. When they were not raiding the Lowlands, they were busy quarrelling amongst themselves. About 1638 the Campbells became the chief power in the Highlands. They extended their original dominions at the expense of the other clans, who hated them bitterly, and only waited for a suitable occasion to unite and overcome them.

9. In 1675 several clans formed a league and overcame the Earl of Argyll, chief of the Campbells, who was afterwards driven into exile and despoiled of his estates. In 1685 he returned as the ally of the Duke of Monmouth, and sent the fiery cross through the Western Highlands. You already know that his rising was futile, and that he was seized and executed. His children became fugitives, and strangers held his estates; but the hatred of the clans towards his name was just as great as ever. At the Revolution his heir returned in triumph, and was restored to the old honours and dignities of his clan. He ardently supported the cause of William, and this alone was sufficient to drive the Macleans, the Camerons, the Macintoshes, and the Macdonalds into the opposite camp.

10. Dundee saw his opportunity, and took full advantage of it. To and fro he went amongst the clans, and working on their hatred of the Campbells, soon united them against their old enemy and in support of James. Lochaber was fixed as the trysting-place, and thither the disaffected clans assembled, near the house of Lochiel, the

chief of the Camerons. Dundee was now at the head of some three thousand hardy Highlanders, all animated by fiery courage and utterly fearless of death. He had also a small contingent of Irish troops sent by King James.

11. News soon arrived that Mackay, William's general in Scotland, was rapidly approaching the Pass of Killiecrankie, that long and narrow ravine by which access is obtained to the Highlands from Perthshire. A road now traverses the eastern slope of the pass, and the Highland Railway runs between the road and the little river Garry. Dundee at once seized Blair Castle, three miles to the north-east, and thus commanded the pass.

12. The battle which followed need not detain us long. Dundee occupied the hills on the right, and was thus ready to fall upon the enemy when he reached the narrow table-land at the top of the pass. Meanwhile Mackay's troops were toiling up the steep and rugged ravine, their advance being hampered and delayed by the baggage horses, which could scarcely tug the carts up the pass. Mackay marched straight into the trap prepared for him, and before his men had time to fix bayonets the Highlanders rushed upon them like a whirlwind. The majority of the English troops broke and fled at the first charge.

13. Dundee fell in the hour of victory. While Mackay's troops, in a state of panic, sought safety in headlong flight, the Highlanders gave themselves up to the congenial work of plunder. Dissensions soon broke out in the Highland army, and large numbers of them marched off homewards, harassed by Mackay, who had now rallied his troops, and by bands of Cameronians, the fiercest and most unre-



The Lords and Commons presenting the Crown to William and Mary in the Banqueting Hall.

(From the fresco by E. M. Ward, R.A., in the Palace of Westminster.)

lenting of the Covenanters. The death of Dundee, and the removal of his strong and able hand, had turned victory into defeat. All the fruits of the battle were gathered by the vanquished. Though the insurrection lingered on in the remote recesses of the Highlands for two years longer, all dangerous resistance to William was at an end.

14. By the end of the year 1691 most of the Highland clans had sworn to live peaceably under William's government. Unfortunately, Macdonald of Glencoe did not take the oath until just after the last day allowed for his submission. The Master of Stair, then Secretary of State for Scotland, had a private grudge against the Macdonalds, and he persuaded William to let him punish the clan. Some soldiers were therefore sent to Glencoe, and were kindly received by the Macdonalds. Suddenly in the night they turned upon their hosts and murdered the greater number of them (February 1692). The "Massacre of Glencoe," as this foul deed is called, has ever since blackened the memory of William.

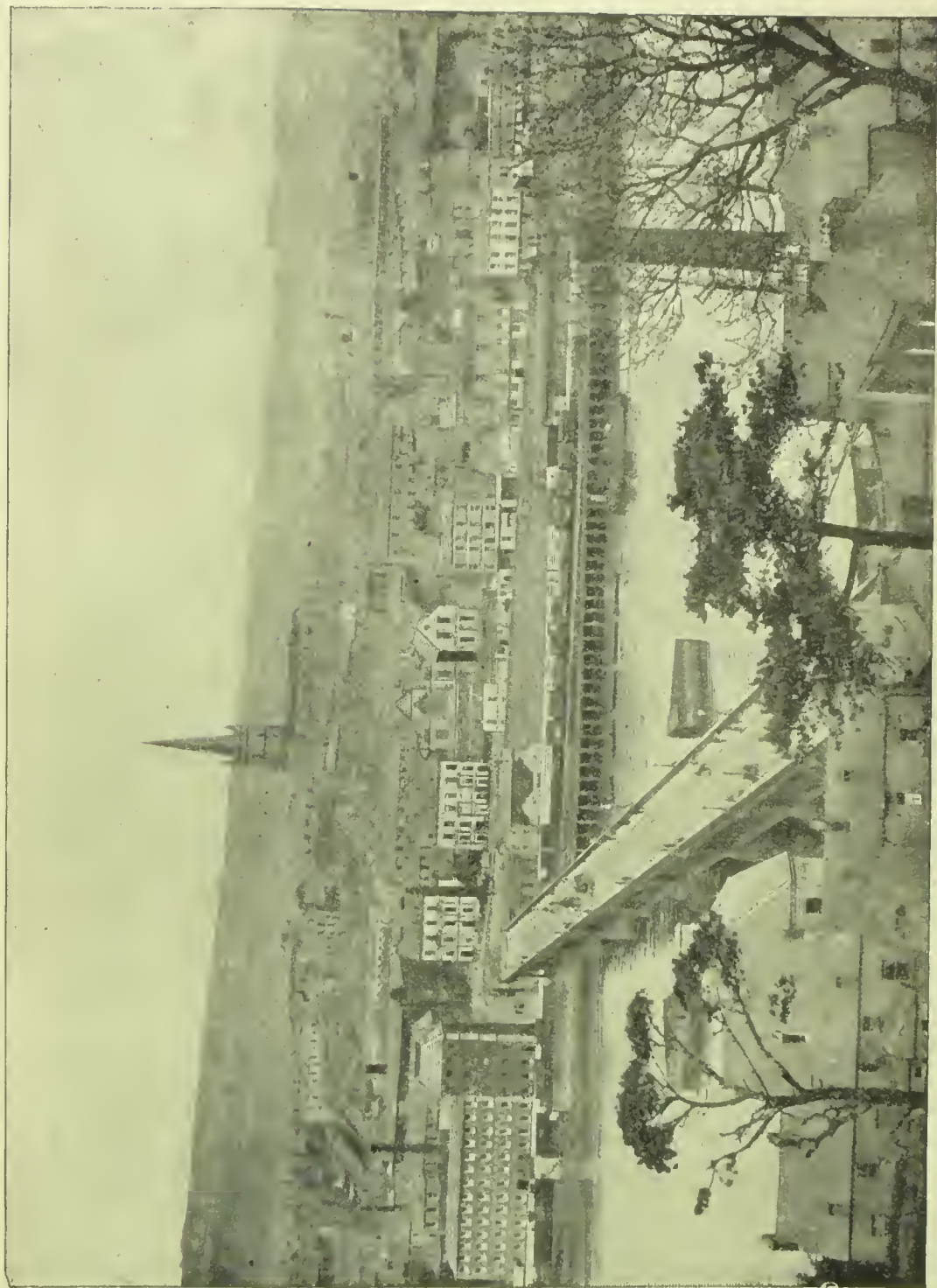
3. THE SIEGE OF LONDONDERRY.

1. To-day we will visit the Ulster city of Londonderry. We find it strikingly situated on rising ground, half surrounded by the broad river Foyle, and about four miles above its expansion into Lough Foyle. Up to the time of James the First the place was known as "Derry;" the prefix London was added out of gratitude to the citizens of the English metropolis, who assisted the Derry men to rebuild their city after its destruction by the O'Neills.

The best way to see Londonderry is to make a circuit of its historic walls. We ascend them at the bottom of Ship Quay Street, and following the course of the sun soon see the cathedral on our right. Here we descend from the wall. In the east angle of the graveyard is a small obelisk commemorating "the illustrious men who distinguished themselves in the siege." At the west end of the cathedral, in the vestibule under the tower, we see a bombshell which fell in the churchyard during the Irish attack on the city.

2. Remounting the wall at Bishop's Gate, which is now a triumphal arch in memory of William the Third, we continue our circuit of the wall, and reach the Double Bastion, which contains "Roaring Meg," the "great gun" of the siege. A hundred yards farther on stands Walker's Monument. It is ninety feet high, and on the top is a colossal statue of the hero of the siege. Round the pedestal are the names of other gallant defenders. The inscription tells us that "This monument was erected to the memory of the Rev. George Walker, who, aided by the garrison and brave inhabitants of this city, most gallantly defended it through a protracted siege." Let us inquire into the history of this siege, which is Londonderry's chief title to historic fame.

3. William the Third assumed the title of King of Ireland when he became King of Great Britain. Ireland was regarded, at that time, as a mere colony of the British Crown, and nobody thought of consulting the Irish people as to their wishes in the matter. The bulk of the Irish, then as now, were ardent Catholics, and as James was the first avowed Catholic who had sat on the throne since Queen



LONDONDERRY.

The river in the foreground is the Foyle ; the prominent church is the cathedral (built 1633). The walls are one mile in circuit, and were constructed early in the seventeenth century. The famous siege took place in the year 1690.

Mary, they naturally hailed his accession with joy, and were ready to fight enthusiastically for him. James had shown every possible favour to his Irish subjects. He had replaced Protestant by Catholic officers in the army, and had appointed Catholic judges, councillors, and magistrates. The real ruler of the country was the Earl of Tyrconnel, a violent and unscrupulous man, who hated Protestantism even more than James did, and asked nothing better than to be allowed to stamp it out.

4. When the news of James's flight reached Tyrconnel, he disarmed all the Protestants except those in the north, and gathered about him an undisciplined army of something like one hundred thousand men. The Catholics had now the upper hand, and Protestants began to fear outrage and bloodshed. Many of them left the country, and there was great terror amongst those who remained. Tyrconnel sent word to the exiled king that he would hold Ireland for him, and James resolved to fight for his crown on Irish soil.

5. In March 1689 James landed at Kinsale with arms, ammunition, and money, all provided by Lewis the Fourteenth, and amidst great enthusiasm advanced to Cork, and thence to Dublin. Meanwhile the Protestants of Ulster, finding themselves too weak to meet Tyrconnel in the open field, hastened to seek safety within the walled towns of Londonderry and Enniskillen, where they proclaimed William and Mary as king and queen, and sent urgent appeals for instant help to England.

6. When James reached the capital, he ordered a Parliament to be summoned. It met in June, and largely consisted of Catholics. The Acts of this Parliament completely

reversed the legislation of the past two centuries. Catholicism was re-established as the religion of the land, and an Act was passed which attainted of high treason some two thousand of the Protestant peers, gentry, and clergy who had either gone over to William or would not declare for James. The Protestants had now no alternative but to offer the most desperate resistance to James. Even if they surrendered, they were assured of death as traitors; and they remembered the aftermath of Sedgemoor too well to trust to his mercy.

7. James now sent Lord Antrim to Londonderry with twelve hundred men to garrison the city. The corporation and the bishop were willing to admit the troops, but not so the populace. Thirteen young apprentices flew to the guardroom, armed themselves, seized the keys of the city, rushed to the gate, closed it in the face of James's officers, and let down the portcullis. From the top of the walls Antrim and his soldiers were advised to be gone, and thinking discretion the better part of valour they retreated. The Protestants of the neighbourhood came flocking into the city, and a small Protestant garrison, under Colonel Lundy, was admitted. By this time thirty thousand men were within the walls, and the Jacobite army, under General Hamilton, was close at hand.

8. Lundy was half-hearted from the first. He did everything in his power to damp the enthusiasm of the inhabitants, and even entered into treasonable correspondence with the enemy, promising them the surrender of the city. James now joined his army, and on the seventeenth of April he advanced to within a hundred yards of the gate of the

town, expecting to see it fly open at his summons. To his amazement, however, he was met with a volley and loud shouts of "No surrender" from the inhabitants who manned the walls. James and his escort were obliged to fly for their lives. Lundy, in disguise, let himself down from the wall and escaped. His memory is still execrated by the Protestants of Ulster, and his effigy is annually burned in front of the Walker memorial which we have just visited.

9. Londonderry was badly prepared to stand a siege. The walls were weak, there were few cannon, and the forts had fallen into ruin. Nevertheless, Walker's stirring words so strengthened the resolution of the people that they determined that, come what might, they would not yield. They formed themselves into companies, appointed officers, obeyed orders, and faced dangers and hardships with wonderful resolution. The walls were strengthened, guns were placed at every gate, and two pieces of artillery played on the besiegers from the roof of the cathedral. On April 18, 1689; the siege began in earnest.

10. Fighting went on almost daily, but the Jacobites were foiled at every attempt to enter the city. There were sallies by the garrison, and constant attacks by the besiegers; but the Derry men drove back their assailants time after time. The women were as full of spirit as the men, and did excellent service in carrying ammunition and food to the soldiers on duty. Once they stoned and drove off a company of Grenadiers which was trying to force an entrance. The fire of the besiegers ploughed up the streets and destroyed many of the houses; but there was a deadlier enemy to be opposed within the city itself.

11. Hamilton now attempted to starve out the city, which was surrounded so closely that communication with the outside world was quite cut off. The hopes of the Derry men were centred in the fleet which William was sending from England to bring them relief. In order to prevent any help reaching the place from the sea, the enemy had stretched a boom made of strong cables and timber logs across the river. Provisions ran short, and horse-flesh, dogs, rats, and refuse of all sorts became the only food of the starving townsfolk. Numbers of men, women, and children perished daily ; but in spite of all their terrible sufferings no one breathed the word "surrender." On the fifteenth of June the watchers on the cathedral tower saw to their joy a fleet of thirty ships sailing up Lough Foyle. The ships contained provisions for the starving people, and soldiers for the defence of the city. The hopes of the hungry inhabitants were, however, not yet to be realized, for the fleet was forced to retire and lie off the mouth of the lough.

12. On the evening of Sunday, the twenty-eighth of July, just when the last hope of relief seemed gone, the watchers saw three ships approaching. The commander of the fleet had received positive orders to force the boom ; and the frigate *Dartmouth*, with two transports, was now attempting to do so. The *Mountjoy* dashed at the boom, and though the ship rebounded and ran aground, the *Phœnix* following her succeeded in breaking the boom ; and the three ships sailed up to the city amidst frantic cries of delight from the starving defenders. At once there was an abundance of food, and Derry was saved after a remarkable siege of one hundred and five days, during which some two thou-

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sand three hundred of the citizens perished. On the first of August the besiegers withdrew.

13. Enniskillen, sixty miles south of Derry, was also a rallying-point of the Protestant colonists. Early in May 1689 the Enniskilleners routed Tyrconnel's troops, and resisted a number of attacks made upon them. On the day before the relief of Derry they marched out and met the Irish near Newtown Butler, where they gained a complete victory. The slaughter was dreadful—one thousand five hundred Irish being killed, and five hundred drowned in Lough Erne, into which they were driven.



4. THE BATTLE OF THE BOYNE AND AFTERWARDS.

1. Through the long agony of Londonderry, William was forced to look on and do nothing. War had been declared with Lewis the Fourteenth, and William's best troops were on the Continent. In the autumn of 1689, however, he was able to send the Duke of Schomberg, a distinguished French officer devoted to his service, to Ireland with a hastily-raised army of fifteen thousand men. Schomberg landed at Bangor, took Carrickfergus Castle, and entrenched himself near Dundalk, where pestilence swept off half his men. William joined him with reinforcements and stores in June of the next year, and the army was raised to thirty thousand men. Meanwhile a picked French force of seven thousand men, commanded by the famous Count de Lauzun, had arrived to lend aid to James.

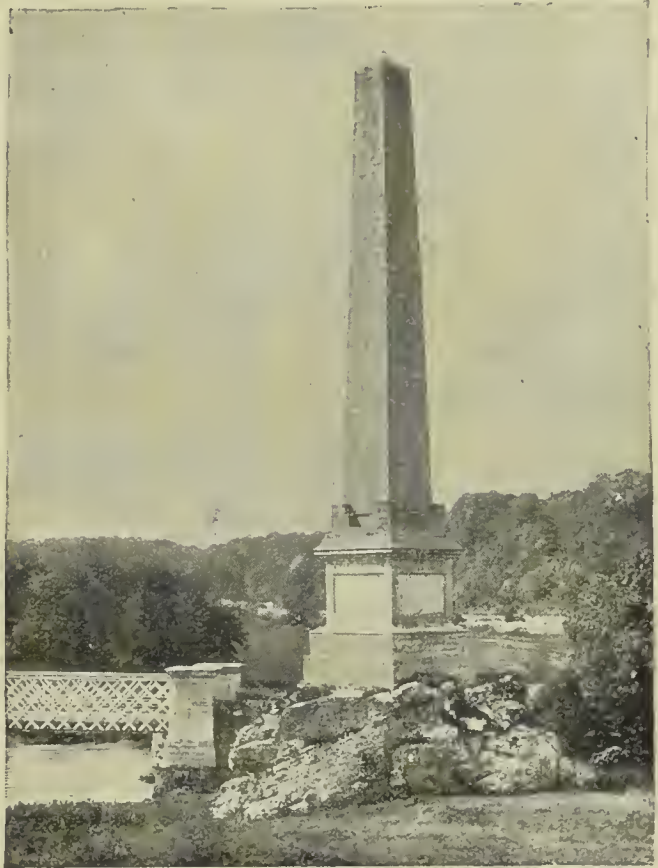
2. William promptly marched southward to meet his rival. He had now a well-trained, well-disciplined, well-equipped army, somewhat larger in numbers than that of James. Moreover, he had fifty cannon, while James had only twelve. On the other hand, James held a strong position on the southern bank of the Boyne, where, in an undecided frame of mind, he awaited attack. When William caught sight of the Irish outposts he cried with a burst of delight, "I am glad to see you, gentlemen; and if you escape me now, the fault will be mine."

3. The battle of the Boyne took place on July 1, 1690. Early in the morning the English right wing, under the Duke of Schomberg's son, was sent to cross the river by the bridge of Slane, for the purpose of turning the Irish left. After some hard fighting the bridge was captured. Four miles south of the Boyne the road to Dublin runs through the narrow Pass of Duleek, which was then shut in by impassable bogs. Young Schomberg now attempted to secure this pass, and thus cut off the Irish retreat. The Count de Lauzun, commander of the French troops, was sent to oppose Schomberg, and managed, by dint of the greatest bravery, to hold the pass.

4. At the head of the left wing, which consisted of cavalry, William forced the passage of the river not far above Drogheda. His men plunged into the stream at the point now marked by a stone monument. The Irish horse fought gallantly, and the struggle was fierce and prolonged. The infantry in the centre of William's army were commanded by Schomberg, who soon drove off the Irish foot-soldiers opposed to him. Their mounted comrades,

however, struggled desperately. Schomberg was killed while rallying a body of his troops which had been broken; but at this moment William came up with his left wing, and, after some furious fighting, the battle was won. The Irish retreated in good order through the Pass of Duleek, and, in spite of all efforts to intercept them, reached Dublin, and thence set out for Limerick.

5. James fled from the field early in the evening, when he saw that the fight was going against him. He galloped off to Dublin, and was the first of the fugitives to enter its walls. The next morning he took ship for France, and never again set foot on Irish soil. The Irish were disgusted at



THE BANKS OF THE BOYNE, SHOWING
MONUMENT.

the cowardice of their king. Patrick Sarsfield, the great Irish soldier, said to one of William's officers, "Change kings with us, and we will fight you over again." The victory at the Boyne decided the fate of Ireland. It was the turning-point in the struggle, and it assured

the final overthrow of James and the restoration of British rule.

6. Though the Irish army was beaten, it was still formidable. It retired beyond the line of the Shannon, and stood at bay in the strongholds of Limerick and Athlone. When Lauzun saw the fortifications of Limerick he said scornfully, "Do you call these ramparts? The English will need no cannon; they may batter them down with roasted apples." He advised the Irish leaders not to attempt the defence of Limerick, and when they rejected his counsel he withdrew with his troops into Galway, to await the first opportunity of returning to France.

7. Lauzun and his forces had scarcely departed before the advance-guard of William's army appeared. The gallant Sarsfield, who was in command of the Irish cavalry, made a daring raid on William's siege train of heavy guns and ammunition which was approaching the town, and captured and destroyed it. Meanwhile William, who was now in front of Limerick, grew tired of waiting for his heavy guns, and made a furious assault on the walls of the town, battering a breach in them. On the afternoon of the twenty-second of August the breach was stormed. The attackers got inside, but they were met with such sturdy bravery by the Irish defenders that they were driven out again after a four hours' conflict, with a loss of two thousand men. William was compelled to fall back, and to give up the siege of Limerick until the following year.

8. The third and last campaign of William in Ireland began in June of the year 1691, when Ginkel, William's

general, advanced on Athlone with an army of eighteen thousand men. Though the place was very weak, and had only a few field-pieces for its defence, a most obstinate resistance was kept up. But for the discovery of a ford which enabled the English to cross the Shannon and take the Irish by surprise, it is probable that the place would never have been taken. As it was, Ginkel became master of a heap of ruins.

9. The next stand of the Irish was made at Aughrim in July. Here they were under the command of a French general named St. Ruth, who was killed just as the Irish appeared to be winning. The confidence of the Irish was gone, and they were driven from the field. Limerick and Galway now alone held out. Galway yielded after the defeat at Aughrim, and Limerick was once more besieged.

10. Ginkel, who commanded the operations, was well supplied with big guns, and the siege was conducted with the utmost vigour. Sixty cannon poured red-hot shot into the place, and soon roofs were blazing and walls crashing down in all parts of the city. By a bold stroke he captured the Thomond Bridge, and a few days later stormed the fort which protected the bridge, and slew the greater part of the garrison. This disaster produced something like a mutiny amongst the besieged, and Sarsfield, who was now in command, saw that his only hope was the arrival of reinforcements from France. As these did not appear, his drums beat a parley, and the two generals discussed terms of surrender. Both sides were sincerely anxious that the war should end.

11. A treaty was signed on the third of October by the English and Irish commanders, and shortly afterwards was confirmed by William. It consisted of two parts—one part dealing with the Irish soldiers, the other part with the Irish people generally. By the first part of the treaty it was agreed that the garrison should be allowed to march out of the city with arms and baggage, drums beating and colours flying, and that soldiers who wished to take service in any foreign country should be carried thither. By the second part of the treaty it was agreed, amongst other things, that Catholics should have that freedom of worship which they had enjoyed during the reign of Charles the Second, and that all who submitted to the king should hold their estates undisturbed.

12. Scarcely was the ink dry on this treaty when the French ships, which the Irish had so anxiously awaited, showed their sails in the Shannon. On board the vessels were three thousand soldiers and ten thousand muskets, but they arrived too late. Sarsfield was the soul of honour; and though he might now have defied Ginkel and the English, he refused to receive the reinforcements, and stood manfully to his word. Three thousand of the Irish soldiers chose to enter William's service; the other twenty thousand preferred to enlist in the French army, where, as the Irish Brigade, they attained great renown on many a battlefield.

13. In 1695 the English Parliament, ignoring the Irish Parliament altogether, passed an Act which was in direct violation of the Treaty of Limerick. It practically excluded conscientious Catholics from all the chief posts of

honour and profit in the country. In the same year the Irish Parliament met, and proceeded to pass a series of Acts known as the Penal Laws. These shameful laws, which remained partly in force until the year 1829, were intended to stamp out the Catholic religion altogether, and to ensure the domination of the Protestants. After the siege of



THE THOMOND BRIDGE AND KING JOHN'S CASTLE, LIMERICK.

(Photo by Lawrence, Dublin.)

The capture by Ginkel of the Thomond Bridge and the fort which protected it led to the surrender of the city. The "Treaty Stone" is preserved on a pedestal beside the bridge.

Limerick, Ireland was a crushed and cowed land. The conquered people submitted in silent despair, and became "hewers of wood and drawers of water" to the triumphant settlers. Though there were outrages, robberies, and murders in plenty, more than a century passed away without one serious rising of the whole Irish people.

5. THE "GRAND MONARCH."

1. To-day in imagination we will visit Versailles, which lies eleven miles south-west of the gay French capital. There we shall find one of the grandest historical monuments of France—the lordly palace which Lewis the Fourteenth, the "Grand Monarch," erected to his own honour and glory. Lewis lavished forty millions of money on the buildings and the magnificent gardens, and sacrificed a great many lives in the vain attempt to bring the waters of a river up to its walls. It was in the gorgeous saloons of Versailles that Lewis lived when his power and influence were at their greatest height. It was in the wonderful gardens of Versailles, with their parterres, their great lawns, their shady avenues, their wealth of statuary, and their vast fountains, that he walked amidst his courtiers during the days when he was absolute King of France and almost master of Europe.

2. No king was ever so absolute as Lewis the Fourteenth. Our own Stuarts were but feeble copies of him. He stamped out every vestige of independence from his kingdom; his people were his submissive slaves; he was his own prime minister, the be-all and end-all of government in his land. He wrung vast sums of money from his long-suffering people by cruel exactions; he raised greater armies than had been seen in Europe since the downfall of the Roman Empire, and was so strong that even a combination of nations could not overthrow him. His reign was a blaze of glory for France. The most brilliant Frenchmen of the time flocked to his Court, including some of the greatest writers that France has ever known. His courtiers flattered



THE GARDENS OF VERSAILLES.

him with almost divine honours, and he really came to believe that he was designed by Providence to be lord of Europe and king of kings.

3. Throughout his life Lewis strove to extend his dominions towards the Rhine. The busy and prosperous Netherlands lay between him and the river, and he greatly coveted their possession. You already know that in William of Orange he found a dogged foe who, when little more than a lad, fought him on many a field, and united the Netherlands, England, and Sweden against him. This combination—known as the “Triple Alliance”—checked Lewis for a time. He gave up a large part of the territories which his armies had occupied, and consented to a treaty of peace which left him stronger than ever. He was only sheathing his sword for a breathing-space.

4. William had agreed to accept the throne of England

chiefly in order that he might have greater resources with which to fight his old enemy. Scarcely had he seated himself on the English throne before Lewis took the field once more. He invaded Germany, and again Europe was in a state of alarm. He received the exiled James at his Court, and gave him men, money, and arms with which to win back his lost kingdom. During the peace William had toiled hard to form an alliance against Lewis, and now he succeeded. In May 1689, England, Spain, the Dutch Republic, Germany, and Savoy formed a confederation, afterwards known as the "Grand Alliance." Its object was to curb the power and ambition of Lewis, and force him to surrender his conquests. With the great goodwill of his people, William declared war on France, and before the end of the year 1689 his allies had followed his example. France was about to be attacked on every side.

5. Busily engaged in crushing the forces of James in Ireland, William was unable to take a personal part in the war now raging on the Continent. Scarcely had he left London for Ireland when a great French fleet, commanded by the Count of Tourville, left the port of Brest and entered the English Channel. It coasted along the southern shores, and the English fleet, then lying in the Downs, went to seek it. The fleet was joined by a Dutch squadron, and on the twenty-sixth of June it met the enemy off the Isle of Wight. The English commander, the Earl of Torrington, was a dissolute and incompetent man. Instead of giving battle, he retreated before the French fleet towards the Strait of Dover.

6. Peremptory orders were sent to him to fight, and

of driving William out of the kingdom. Many eminent men, both Whigs and Tories, amongst others the Duke of Marlborough, had secretly communicated with him and offered him their support. The fleet especially contained many Jacobites, for James before his accession to the throne had been a popular and efficient Lord High Admiral. Relying upon these evidences of disaffection, Lewis assembled on the coast of Normandy an army of thirty thousand men, with five hundred transports, the greater part at La Hogue and Cherbourg, the rest at Havre. Tourville was ordered to set out from Brest with fifty ships and attack the English fleet before it could be reinforced by the Dutch, and thus clear the Channel for the projected invasion.

9. Lewis expressly commanded his admiral to fight the English fleet, no matter how strong it might be. He knew that the commander, Admiral Russell, was a declared Jacobite, and he felt sure that half the English fleet would either not fight at all, or declare for him as the ally of James. Lewis never made a greater mistake in his life. Just as in the time of the Armada Catholics laid aside their religious differences and fought loyally in defence of their threatened land, so now the Jacobites forgot their political differences and united with their fellow-countrymen to beat the French from their shores. "Understand this," said Admiral Russell to a friend, "if I meet the French I fight them, ay, though his Majesty himself should be on board."

10. By the end of April the English fleet was ready to sail. It combined with the Dutch fleet, and in May more than ninety sail of the line, manned by thirty or forty thousand of the best seamen of the two greatest maritime

nations of the world, was standing out to sea. On the morning of the nineteenth of May the French fleet was sighted a few leagues from Barfleur. The English and Dutch were in the highest spirits, and were determined to win. Russell sent a message to his crews. "If your commanders play you false," said he, "overboard with them, and with myself the first." Tourville was hopelessly outnumbered, but he did not dare to disobey his orders.

11. Night fell after a day of tremendous battle, yet the French had not lost a ship. Nevertheless, their line had been broken, and the victory of the allied fleets was only a matter of hours. There was no easily accessible harbour of refuge for Tourville along the coast, and in desperation he tried to escape with his fleet to St. Malo by passing through the dangerous Race of Alderney, which separates the Channel Islands from the French coast. Thirteen of his ships were too late for the tide, and failed to get through. Most of these were destroyed during the next few days by the allied fleets in the presence of and under the very guns of the army of invasion.

12. The five days' battle ended at noon on the twenty-fourth of the month. The French lost sixteen fine men-of-war, while only one English fire-ship was destroyed. The victory completely foiled Lewis. England was once more safe from invasion, and great was the rejoicing of the nation. As a lasting memorial of the fight, William and Mary completed the mansion which Charles the Second had begun to build at Greenwich, and dedicated it as a retreat for seamen disabled in the service of their country. Greenwich Hospital still serves its original purpose.

6. A TANGLED SKEIN.

1. Though defeated at sea, the forces of Lewis were generally victorious on land. In 1691 both the British and French kings took a personal part in the war. The important town of Mons was besieged, and William, who was in the neighbourhood, could not muster sufficient troops to prevent its capture. In the next year Lewis attacked Namur, the great fortress at the confluence of the Sambre and Meuse, a barrier, as he said, "splendidly placed either to arrest the action of France or to facilitate the forward movements of her enemies." This, too, fell, and its loss was such a bitter blow that in the next year the members of the Grand Alliance almost gave up the struggle in despair.

2. William, however, bent all his energies to the task of keeping the allies together, and though other defeats were in store for him, his resolution never faltered. He was beaten at Steinkerk, mainly owing to the bad generalship of his commander; and again at Neerwinden in the following year, though the French bought their victory dearly. Nevertheless, with unfailing courage and resource, he constantly repaired his disasters, and still offered a formidable resistance. At the beginning of the struggle Lewis had remarked that the last piece of gold would win. Now he was to learn the truth of his prophecy. By every sort of device he had ground money out of his people, and they were now in a terrible state of destitution. The corn and wine harvests had failed, and "France," said Lewis's minister, "is only a large hospital, desolate and without

food." Britain, too, was well-nigh exhausted, and both kings were ready for peace.

3. After long delays, a treaty was signed and peace was made on September 10, 1697, at Ryswick, a village near the Hague. Lewis undertook to restore various fortresses and places he had captured during the war, and formally recognized William as lawful King of Great Britain and Ireland. He further agreed not to aid William's enemies directly or indirectly. This meant that the cause of James was now to be abandoned, and that the Jacobites must look elsewhere for assistance.

4. The Peace of Ryswick was but a truce after all. Lewis might have continued the struggle, but he now perceived a better method of extending his dominions. The poor imbecile King of Spain, Charles the Second, was dying without an heir to succeed him. He was master of Spain, the Spanish Netherlands (now Belgium), a large part of Italy, and the Spanish colonies in America and the West Indies. If Lewis or some prince of his house could succeed to the Spanish throne, France would undoubtedly become the unchallenged mistress of Europe. William's great aim had always been to prevent the Spanish heritage—especially the Netherlands and the American colonies—from falling into the hands of Lewis; and it must in fairness be said that up to the Treaty of Ryswick the French king had not unduly pressed his claim.

5. There were three claimants to the Spanish throne—Lewis, the Emperor Leopold (both of whom were connected with the Spanish royal house by marriage and by descent), and Joseph, a Bavarian prince, who was descended from a

former king of Spain. In 1698 William and Lewis had agreed that, on the death of Charles, Joseph should succeed to the bulk of the Spanish dominions, the Italian possessions being divided between the eldest son of the French king and the Archduke Charles, the second son of the Emperor. Unfortunately, Joseph died in 1699, and next year another agreement was made between William and Lewis, whereby the Archduke Charles was to step into Joseph's shoes, and the Spanish territories in Italy were to fall to France. Such was the state of affairs three years after the Treaty of Ryswick.

6. The news of this arrangement greatly enraged the Spaniards, who naturally desired to prevent the dismemberment of their empire. The Spanish queen was so angry that she broke all the furniture in her room, and the king showed equal resentment. Probably Lewis only made the agreement with William in the hope of angering the Spaniards. If so, he succeeded admirably. Charles now began to repent of his intention to leave his dominions to the Archduke Charles, and was persuaded to make a will in favour of Philip, Duke of Anjou, a younger grandson of the French king. Lewis accepted this will, and on the death of Charles, in November 1700, Philip became King of Spain as Philip the Fifth.

7. William had thus suffered another defeat, and he felt it bitterly. He knew that some day Philip might become King of France ; but, in any case, he was well aware that a French prince on the throne of Spain was a great danger to Europe, and especially to Great Britain. At this time William was very unpopular. His good and gracious wife

had died of smallpox six years previously, and in the interval William had become colder and more reserved than ever. His subjects disliked his Dutch manners and his Dutch friends, and the Jacobites were growing in strength daily.

8. After the Treaty of Ryswick, Parliament, much to William's chagrin, had reduced the army considerably, and for a time he could do nothing. When, however, the succession of Philip to the Spanish throne was announced public opinion began to veer round, and William was able to send ten thousand troops to Holland under the command of Marlborough. Shortly afterwards he himself went over to the Hague, and laboured hard to form a new combination of nations against Lewis. He succeeded in forming a "Grand Alliance," whereby Great Britain, Austria, and Holland leagued themselves against France and Spain. Other powers subsequently joined the league.

9. Hardly had the Grand Alliance been formed when an event took place which rallied the great bulk of the British nation to the side of its unpopular king. In September 1701 James the Second lay dying in the Palace of St. Germain, where he had lived as the guest of Lewis since his flight from England. Lewis had promised James on his deathbed to support the claims of his son, James Edward, afterwards known as the "Old Pretender." No sooner was the father dead than James Edward was proclaimed at the palace gates King of Great Britain and Ireland. Three days later Lewis formally acknowledged him in the face of his Court.

10. At once the English nation was roused. William's

unpopularity vanished like magic. The majority of the British people did not love him, but they hated the Stuarts, and under no consideration would they "suffer the old breed." Loyal and patriotic addresses poured in upon him. He was once more the saviour of the country. Immediately he dissolved the wrangling Parliament which had thwarted him at every turn, and the new Parliament was found to be strongly favourable to him. Once more he was ready to continue his life-work of checking the ambition of Lewis.

11. Before anything decisive could be done, William was dead. His health had always been bad, and now, worn out by disease and anxiety, he succumbed to a slight accident. On February 20, 1701, he went for a ride in the grounds of Hampton Court. His horse, stepping on a molehill, fell, and William's collar-bone was broken. This accident was too much for his enfeebled frame. On the eighth of March, surrounded by his faithful friends, he breathed his last.

12. Wherein lay William's greatness? It lay in his steady and stubborn resistance to the ambition of the French king, who threatened the independence of every country in Europe. It has been said that, "No one was ever cleverer at building up confederations and holding them together, or in commanding armies of the most various composition without arousing national hatreds; no one knew better how, in contests at home, to await the right moment, how to give way, and yet to hold fast."

13. William died long before his work was done. The duel between France and Great Britain was only in its

opening stages. During a large part of the next one hundred and fourteen years the two nations were to be engaged in open warfare, and in the course of the long and deadly struggle France was to lose her foreign empire and her mastery of Europe. Not for one hundred and fifty-two years were the ancient foes to lay aside their old hatred, and begin to draw together, slowly but surely, in that warm friendship which happily marks their relations to-day.

7. MARLBOROUGH.—I.

1. To-day we will visit one of the stateliest of the many "stately homes of England." We journey to the little Oxfordshire town of Woodstock, which is one of the oldest places in the country, and possesses many interesting historical memories. Within a short distance of the main street of Woodstock we see a triumphal arch which gives access to a great park. Soon after we pass through the arch we get a glimpse of the massive walls and pinnaced towers of the palace which we have come to see. In front of it is a beautiful lake, crossed by a fine stone bridge of three arches. On the distant bank rises a lofty column crowned by a statue. The house is Blenheim Palace, and the statue on the top of the column is in memory of John Churchill, Duke of Marlborough, the man who succeeded and eclipsed William in the conduct of the great struggle with France.

2. Marlborough's greatest victory was won at Blendheim or Blenheim, a village of Bavaria, on August 13, 1704.

So important and far-reaching was the effect of the battle that the Government, in gratitude, presented Marlborough with £500,000 with which to purchase the manor of Woodstock and erect a house which should be named after his great victory. The building of the house was entrusted to a noted architect of the day, Sir John Vanbrugh, whose epitaph a wag proposed to write as follows:—

“Lie heavy on
him, Earth,
for he
Laid many a
heavy load
on thee.”



THE STATUE OF MARLBOROUGH IN THE PARK OF
BLENHEIM PALACE.

Blenheim House is certainly a heavy-looking structure; but, in spite of all its critics, it is a magnificent pile, and a not unworthy monument to Marlborough's great military genius. The building was begun in the summer of 1705,

but was not completed until after the death of the duke, who, however, resided in it during his latter years.

3. Standing before this princely token of a nation's gratitude, let us learn something of the strangely chequered career of the man who earned it. John Churchill, afterwards Duke of Marlborough, was the son of a Devonshire Cavalier, Sir Winston Churchill, and was born in 1650, the year preceding the battle of Worcester, which finally



JOHN CHURCHILL, FIRST
DUKE OF MARLBOROUGH.

*(From the painting in
the National Portrait Gallery.
Photo by Walker & Cockerell.)*

put an end to the Civil War and established the Commonwealth in England. The Restoration took place when Churchill was ten years of age, and seven years later he was made an ensign in the army.

4. After five years' service abroad, he became colonel of an English regiment which was retained in the service of France. By this time the "handsome Englishman," as he was called, had already shown some of the qualities of a great soldier. He was absolutely fearless, bold and adventurous, cool and unruffled in temper, calm and far-seeing in judgment, and capable of enduring all sorts of fatigue. His manners were as winning as his person, and he won favour wherever he went. Thanks to the friendship of the Duke of York, afterwards James the Second, to whose fortunes he attached himself, he was raised to the peerage. At the time of Monmouth's rebellion James made him major-general of the forces, and the victory at Sedge-

moor was largely due to his coolness and resource in rallying the royal troops when thrown into disorder by the night attack of the rebels.

5. Just before James's flight Churchill declared that he would shed the last drop of his blood to keep his master on the throne. Nevertheless, he had already promised to assist William, and when that prince began his march on London he deserted the king's army on the eve of battle. He and his wife were also instrumental in persuading the Princess Anne to forsake her father and put herself under the protection of William. For these services the new king created his unscrupulous servant Earl of Marlborough. During the Irish war he was given an important command, and so well did he acquit himself that William, who was no mean judge of a soldier, said that he knew no man so fit to be a general who had seen so few campaigns.

6. Marlborough owed much of his rapid promotion to his wife. In 1678 he married a penniless beauty of the Court, named Sarah Jennings. She was a lady of violent temper and a domineering disposition, but she also possessed a strange power of winning and retaining affection. Marlborough's love for his wife "ran like a thread of gold through the dark web of his career." He hated writing, chiefly because his spelling was so bad. Nevertheless, in the midst of his marches and his sieges, and even from the battlefield itself, he constantly wrote his wife letters full of the most passionate devotion.

7. When Marlborough wooed and won Sarah Jennings, she was the bosom friend and constant companion of the

Princess Anne, whom she had known from girlhood. Soon she obtained complete mastery over the weak and feeble nature of the princess, who became a mere puppet in her hands. The friends laid aside all the formalities of rank in their intercourse; Anne was Mrs. Morley, and the duchess was Mrs. Freeman. Anne saw with her favourite's eyes and spoke with her favourite's words. If the princess attempted to show one spark of independence, she was deafened and crushed by the violent reproaches of the woman who was nominally her servant, but really her tyrant. Anne's husband, Prince George of Denmark, did not count at all. He was considered the most harmless and the most stupid man in the land.

8. Counting upon his wife's complete control of the princess, Marlborough now began to plot against William. His plan was to take advantage of William's great unpopularity, and drive him from the throne in favour of Anne. The plot was discovered, and William, usually cool and calm, was roused to the utmost indignation. "Were I and my Lord Marlborough private persons," he cried, "the sword would have to settle between us." At once the earl was stripped of his offices, and his wife was driven from St. James's. Anne, however, refused to be parted from her friend, and left the Court with her. Then Marlborough opened a treasonable correspondence with the deposed king at St. Germain. He expressed his deep sorrow for having deserted his rightful sovereign, and obtained a written promise of pardon.

9. Queen Mary died childless in 1694, and Anne became the acknowledged heir to the throne. William

was obliged to recall her to the Court, and with her returned the Marlboroughs, who were reluctantly received into favour once more. William hated the earl's baseness and treachery, but he recognized his splendid gifts, and saw clearly that he of all men was the fittest to carry on the great work of checking the ambition of Lewis. Marlborough was therefore sent to Flanders at the head of the army, and had only just taken command when William met with his fatal accident.

10. The succession of Anne practically made the Marlboroughs king and queen of England. Three days later Marlborough was appointed captain-general of the British forces at home and abroad, and entrusted with the entire direction of the war. Offices and gifts were showered upon his wife, and the ministers were chosen from his friends and adherents. Most of these men had been in treasonable communication with James ; but they now abandoned him, and for their own selfish ends determined to keep Anne on the throne, secure the Protestant succession, and proceed with the war. Accordingly war was declared in 1702. Great Britain, Holland, Austria, and most of the smaller states of Germany were soon leagued in arms against France and Spain. Portugal and Savoy joined the league before the end of the war.

8. MARLBOROUGH.—II.

1. In 1703 Lewis found armies arrayed against him in four different countries—in the Spanish Netherlands, in South Germany, in North Italy, and in Spain. The commander

of the allied British, Dutch, and Germans in the Netherlands was Marlborough, who had not yet demonstrated his superb military genius, but had exhibited his unrivalled powers of conciliating the jarring elements which formed his army. In North Italy the Austrian forces were under Prince Eugene of Savoy, a man of extraordinary courage and talent, who was worshipped by his men, and still lives as a hero in song. No two such generals had ever commanded armies against Lewis before.

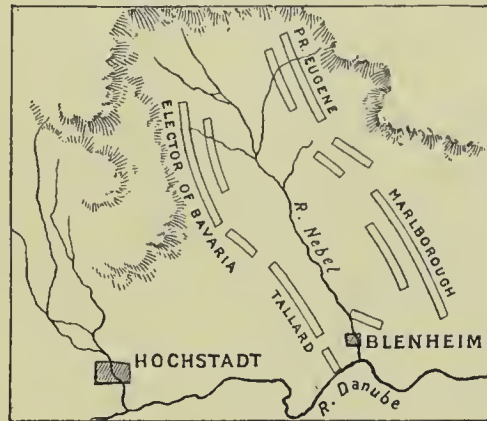
2. The beginning of the war was uneventful. Marlborough, however, managed to capture a number of fortresses along the line of the Meuse, and by doing so cut off the French from the Lower Rhine, and made the invasion of Holland impossible. For the rest, the campaign was indecisive. On his return to England he was created Duke of Marlborough, the title by which he is best known.

3. Marlborough was now on the threshold of his great career. He was fifty-four years old, and was about to win victories at an age when the work of most men is done. Like his predecessor William, he owed little to early training and much to his natural abilities. The keynote of his greatness as a general was the vigour and audacity of his plans. His greatest obstacle was the slowness and timidity of the Dutch, who refused again and again to co-operate in the brilliant movements which he suggested. Calm and unruffled, patient and tactful, he composed all the differences of his allies, and proved himself to be even greater in the council chamber than on the battlefield.

4. Lewis now made a bold bid for victory. He sent the flower of his army into Bavaria, where the local troops joined

them, and an attempt was made to capture Vienna. The scheme failed for the moment, but was bound ultimately to succeed unless prompt action was taken; so, early in 1704, Marlborough determined to make a dash for the Danube. To do this he had to march right across Germany from the Lower Rhine, while Prince Eugene had to cross the Alps from Italy. Both these undertakings were full of difficulty, but the difficulties were overcome. By his boldness and secrecy he completely deceived his enemy, and not until he had crossed the Neckar and united his forces with those of Eugene was his real object revealed.

5. On August 13, 1704, the armies faced each other. The enemy, numbering fifty-six thousand, was posted in a strong position, with a marshy stream in front, hill country on the left, and the Danube on the right. A short distance from



the great river stood the village of Blenheim, which was occupied by Marshal Tallard's infantry. At sunrise the allies were in motion, and Eugene, with twenty thousand men, was marching through broken and wooded country towards the stream, which had to be crossed before he could attack the Bavarians on the left. Not until mid-day did his troops cross the stream, and when they faced the enemy they were so weary that they could do little more than hold their own.

6. While Eugene was struggling on the right, the British

infantry were crossing the stream on the left and falling on Blenheim. Here, too, the fight was long and indecisive. The day, however, was to be decided by a cavalry battle in the centre. Across the swamp, which the French considered impassable, Marlborough had constructed an artificial road, and in the late afternoon he crossed the river with eight thousand horsemen. Leading two furious charges in person, he completely broke the French cavalry, which fled in confusion. He then drove the French southward to the Danube, where they were obliged to drown or yield. Eleven thousand men laid down their arms, and fifteen thousand others were slain, drowned, or wounded.

7. "It was a famous victory." Austria was saved, the French were driven out of Germany, and the Elector of Bavaria was forced to make peace. The moral effect of the battle, however, was still greater. For half a century the French had been considered invincible; now the spell was broken, and the prestige of France had vanished. For the rest of the war Lewis had to act on the defensive, and "Malbrook" became a name of fear to every child in France. You already know how the British nation testified its gratitude towards its victorious general.

8. Elsewhere, too, fortune smiled on the British arms. The Spaniards had not sufficiently recognized the importance of Gibraltar, "the key of the Mediterranean," and had neglected to garrison it properly. A party of British sailors, taking advantage of a saint's day during which the eastern part of the fortress had been left unguarded, actually scaled the precipice, while another party stormed the South Mole Head. In a few hours the British were in possession of the

fortress, which, despite four fierce sieges, has remained in our hands ever since. No fortress has ever been more fiercely assailed than Gibraltar during the great siege, which began in 1779 and ended in 1783.

9. Next year Marlborough began to attack the great line of fortifications which then extended almost from Antwerp to Namur. He proposed to fight a decisive action near to the field of Waterloo, but was prevented by the persistent opposition of the Dutch. At the end of 1705 the position of affairs in the Netherlands was "as you were." Next year, however, Marlborough again covered himself with glory. He almost destroyed the French army at Ramillies, and made himself master of the whole of Belgium.

10. Prince Eugene also fared well in Italy, where he drove the French troops across the Alps. Austrian and British troops also entered Spain, where they met with a stubborn resistance, and made little progress. In 1708 Marlborough and Eugene won another great victory at Oudenarde. The French generals would not act together, and consequently their troops were thrown into disorder. A long running fight on the heights of Oudenarde followed, and the French right wing was cut to pieces. The remainder of the army, flying back into France, was pursued, and the fortress of Lille was captured. Lewis begged for peace ; but the allies offered him terms which he could not accept, and so, much against his will, the war went on.

11. Next year (1709) Marlborough defeated the French at Malplaquet, 10 miles south of Mons. The French position was very strong, being protected on both sides by thick woods and heavy batteries. Nevertheless, Marlborough

attacked it, and met with his usual success, though the victory was dearly bought with great sacrifice of human life. This was Marlborough's last triumph. The British nation was weary of the war, and ready to bring it to a close.

12. Peace was signed at Utrecht in 1713, and by the treaty then made Great Britain received Gibraltar and Minorca, which had been captured by the British fleet during the war, together with Nova Scotia and Newfoundland. It was also agreed, amongst other matters, that France and Spain should never be united under one sovereign. The gains of Great Britain were considerable, and they gave her the lead in the great race for colonial power and trade. The Peace of Utrecht is one of the most important landmarks in the onward march of our Empire.

13. Long before the treaty was signed, Marlborough, once the darling of the nation, was in dire disgrace. He had gone into the war as a Tory, but during its continuance had allied himself with the Whigs, and by 1708 the Ministry almost entirely consisted of men of his new party. Anne was at heart a Tory, and she greatly disliked the change. Indeed, she only agreed to the appointment of the Whig leader, Lord Sunderland, because Marlborough threatened to resign, and the duchess bitterly upbraided her for daring to have a will of her own. Anne was now tired of the Marlboroughs, and was only waiting for an opportunity to throw off their yoke. A Mrs. Masham, cousin of the duchess, had contrived to usurp the position of "Mrs. Freeman," and she now encouraged the queen to rebel.

14. An opportunity soon occurred. In 1710 a clergyman, named Dr. Sacheverell, in the course of a dull, foolish sermon

at St. Paul's, preached the old Tory doctrine of the divine right of kings. Very foolishly the Whig ministers determined to prosecute him for the sermon. The trial resolved itself into a great struggle between the two parties, and Sacheverell became a martyr. The nation generally supported him, and a storm of hatred arose against the Whigs. Thereupon the queen dismissed them from office, restored the Tories, sent "Mrs. Freeman" about her business, and removed Marlborough from his command.

15. The Tories, headed by Henry St. John, Viscount Bolingbroke, a subtle traitor in secret correspondence with the "Old Pretender," now wreaked their vengeance on Marlborough. He was charged with embezzling public money, and the charge was only too true. With all his greatness, Marlborough had a sordid and miserable soul. It has been said that he was perhaps the only really great man who ever loved money for its own sake.

16. Instead of answering his accusers, he fled to the Continent, where he remained in voluntary exile until news reached him of Anne's last illness. He landed at Dover on the day of her death. The new king restored him to his command and his honours, but two years later his mind and body began to give way. He spent his declining days in riding, playing with his grandchildren, and keeping minute accounts of his most trifling expenditure. Even when old and infirm, it is said that he walked in order to save sixpence for a chair. A fresh stroke of paralysis proved fatal. He died on June 16, 1722, and was buried with great splendour in Westminster Abbey. His body, however, now rests in the chapel at Blenheim.



PARLIAMENT HOUSE, EDINBURGH.

9. GREAT BRITAIN.

1. In Book V. we visited Edinburgh, and made the old Palace of Holyrood our starting-point for the tragic story of Mary Queen of Scots. To-day we will revisit "Edina, Scotia's darling seat"—as Robert Burns, the national poet, styles it—and make our way to Parliament House. Its front faces the courtyard to the rear of the great Church of St. Giles. We enter the building, and speedily find ourselves in a fine hall, resembling that at Westminster. It has a massive oak roof; its windows of stained glass represent scenes from Scottish history; and its walls are adorned with paintings and statuary. Up and down in never-ending procession you see advocates in wig and gown walking and consulting with their clients, perusing their papers, or

chatting with their friends. At the farther end of the great hall are the law courts, in which important trials are held.

2. Naturally you ask why this building, now devoted to law and lawyers, bears the name of Parliament House. The answer is obvious : it was the seat of the Scottish Parliament from 1639 to that historic day in the year 1707, when the Parliaments of Northern and Southern Britain became one, and the separate Scottish Parliament ceased to exist. A well-known writer gives us a picture of the state of Edinburgh during the anxious days when the Act of Union was under discussion.

3. "The debates," he says, "are vehement, stormy, fierce. Eager crowds without are clamorously discussing over again what is debated within. The city, which is crowded with strangers from all parts of the country, seems as if under military occupation. Strong bodies of troops mount guard in the different streets. A wild cheer or a deep yell of execration gives occasional expression to the passions of the mob. The great Daniel Defoe, author of 'Robinson Crusoe' and many a political pamphlet, is here, in the interests of the English Government. That is his fine manly face looking out of yonder window. A great stone hurled by a vigorous arm narrowly misses his head, the populace making a point that no one shall look out of windows at them, lest he should recognize faces and become a witness against rioters."

4. From this passage you learn that the Edinburgh citizens were by no means willing to give up their independence and unite with the ancient enemy south of the Border. You already know that William the Third and the

English Parliament were exceedingly unpopular in Scotland. The massacre of Glencoe had raised bitter hatred against the king, and the failure of the Darien Scheme had intensified the hatred. What was the Darien Scheme? It was the idea of a great Scotsman, named William Paterson, the man who founded the Bank of England in order to meet the difficulty experienced by William the Third in raising money for the war against France. As a young man, Paterson



BANK OF ENGLAND, FOUNDED BY WILLIAM PATERSON, 1694.

had visited the Isthmus of Darien or Panama, and had conceived the idea of establishing a colony on it. The isthmus lies midway between Europe and China, Japan, the Spice Islands, and the East Indies. The soil was fertile, and in the neighbourhood were rich mines of precious metals; while one portion of the country, lying between Porto Bello and Cartagena, though under a tropical sun, was suitable for the habitation of white men.

5. Paterson unfolded his scheme to that fervent Scottish patriot, Fletcher of Saltoun, who was struck with the proposal, and introduced its author to the Minister for Scotland, who warmly supported the project. It was thought that the profits of the Darien colony would soon rival the gains of the East India Company, and the Scottish public, in this belief, hastened to engage in the new venture. Half the cash of Scotland—a sum of £400,000—was soon subscribed. To this amount England agreed to add £300,000, and Hamburg and Holland a similar sum. Scotland grew very enthusiastic, and the East India Company, now alarmed, used every effort to prevent the scheme from being carried into effect. England was induced to withdraw her promise to assist; but the Scots, nothing daunted, determined to see the enterprise through.

6. On July 26, 1698, twelve hundred persons, some of whom were of the best blood in Scotland, set sail in five stout vessels from Leith. They arrived in Darien two months later, built a fort, and established New Edinburgh. At first they were delighted with the fruitfulness and good situation of the settlement; but soon food failed, disease appeared, and the colony broke up. A new expedition arrived in 1699, only to find New Edinburgh in ruins. The new-comers were attacked by the Spaniards, who, it is said, were instigated by the English Government. The ranks of the colonists were weakened by disease, and the unhappy people were forced to surrender and sail for home.

7. So ended the great Darien scheme. Of the twelve hundred who originally set out for the new colony full of courage and hope, only thirty landed on the pier of Leith.

The Scottish people were bitterly angry with William and with the English Government, and attributed the failure of the colony to national jealousy. The Jacobites strove by every means to turn this national discontent to their advantage, though they had no real hold on the mass of the people.

8. There were other reasons, too, for the prevailing discontent. During the closing years of William's reign Scotland had been scourged by famine and pestilence, and the outcasts and beggars are said to have numbered two hundred thousand. The blame for all this was laid at the door of the English Parliament, which interfered with Scottish trade, and thus prevented the nation from becoming prosperous. Ill-feeling grew apace, and soon there were loud cries for equal trading privileges with England, or for separation. In order to allay the discontent, William and Anne proposed to unify the Parliaments, and put both countries on a similar footing. A commission was appointed by both Parliaments in 1703 to treat for union ; but nothing came of it, for the English could not be persuaded to admit the Scots to equal trading privileges with themselves.

9. Early in Anne's reign a crisis arose. The Scottish Parliament passed an Act of Security, which provided that on the death of the queen the king of England should not reign in Scotland unless equal rights of trade were secured to dwellers on both sides of the Border. The English Parliament retaliated with an Act which refused to Scots in England the privileges of English citizens, and even pretended to prepare for war. Reasonable men on both sides now saw that unless the old unhappy days of tumult and

strife were to begin again, a real union between the two countries must take place.

10. Another commission sat in 1706, and Articles of Union were drawn up. The English gave way on the burning question of trade, and the other matters in dispute were easily arranged. When, however, the plan for Union was presented to the Scottish Parliament there were, as you already know, furious debates and riotous scenes. The patriotic party, under Fletcher of Saltoun, proposed that there should be a Federal Union—that is, Scotland should retain her Parliament for Scottish affairs, and that there should be a united Parliament for matters common to the two countries. This proposal, which was only lost by a small majority, has been mooted again in Scotland during recent years.

11. At length, however, by dint of bribery, the opponents of the Union were won over, and the Bill of Union passed. On May 1, 1707, amidst the sullen wrath of the Scottish nation, the queen's representative touched the Bill with the sceptre in token that it had the royal approval. "There's an end of an auld sang," said the chancellor, and with this ill-timed jest the Scottish Parliament came to an end. The Duke of Queensberry, who was to carry the news to England, had to be guarded by armed men to save him from being torn to pieces by the angry mob. In England he was received with every mark of national rejoicing.

12. The Act of Union declared that thenceforward the kingdoms of England and Scotland were united into one kingdom under the name of Great Britain, and that the natives of each country should have equal rights in every

respect. The "Kirk," the Scots law, and the universities were to be retained, and one Parliament was to preside over the destinies of both countries. Forty-five Scottish members, now increased to seventy-four, were to take their seats in the joint House of Commons, and sixteen elected peers in the House of Lords. The arms of England and Scotland were blended on the royal shield and on the great seal, just as a British flag had been formed by uniting the white cross of St. Andrew with the red cross of St. George.

13. "I desire," said the queen, "and expect from my subjects of both nations that henceforth they act with all possible respect and kindness to one another, that so it may appear to all the world that they have hearts disposed to become one people." More than a generation passed, however, before Scotsmen regarded the Union as anything but a curse. Its evils were quick to show themselves; its benefits were of slow growth and gradual development.

14. The emblems of independence had suddenly vanished. Parliament House was deserted; the aristocracy, the members of the Scottish Parliament, and their retainers migrated to London; and no longer did Edinburgh possess the outward and visible marks of a great capital. The smaller and poorer nation felt its loss keenly, and believed itself not only robbed of its independence by traitors in its own camp, but treated with the utmost indifference by the "predominant partner." The Jacobites were especially furious, for they clearly saw that with the disappearance of the Scottish Parliament they had no hope of restoring the Stuarts by peaceful means. After the Union nothing remained to them but armed rebellion.

15. Ill-feeling passed away in time, and the benefits of the Union began to be apparent. There are still some Scotsmen who believe in Home Rule for Scotland, and think the country would benefit by having its own Parliament; but there is no Scotsman who does not fully recognize that the Union has been fruitful of benefits to both countries. After the Union, Scotland's era of prosperity began, and Scotsmen found a new and wider career open to them. Alike in the government, the defence, the learning, and the national life of Great Britain and the British Empire, Scotsmen have since the Union played a leading part.

10. IN THE DAYS OF QUEEN ANNE.

1. To-day we will visit St. Paul's Cathedral, the second of the two great churches of London. We make our way to Ludgate Circus, and walking up Ludgate Hill see the west front of the magnificent structure before us. High above the streets soars the great dome, surmounted by the golden cross "that shines o'er city and river." To the right and the left of the pillared front are two lofty towers, that on the south side containing Great Paul, the largest bell in England. St. Paul's is one of the grandest churches in all the world, and is second only to Westminster Abbey in the number of monuments which it contains to the mighty dead.

2. The cathedral which we are now visiting is the third which has stood on the same site. The first was founded as far back as the days of Ethelbert, King of Kent, and was

destroyed by fire shortly after the Norman Conquest. The cathedral which rose upon its ruins was not completed for two centuries, and is known in history as Old St. Paul's. As you already know, it was swept away by the Great Fire, and was rebuilt by Sir Christopher Wren, one of the greatest architects who ever lived. While he was building St. Paul's he was also building thirty other city churches, no two of which are alike, and yet all are in harmony and proportion with the great central building. Wren died in 1723, and was buried in the cathedral which he had built. On a tablet over his tombstone you may see these words in Latin: "Reader, if thou seekest his monument, look around."

3. Now let us try to picture London as it was in the days when St. Paul's was new, and people were coming from far and near to admire Sir Christopher's handiwork. The first thing we should notice would be the immense number of painted signs hanging from the poles which jutted out from almost every door and window. Houses were not then numbered, but were distinguished by brightly-coloured figures or paintings—Black Lions, Blue Boars, Golden Keys, and Saracen's Heads being especially common. A letter, for example, would be addressed to Mr. So-and-So, "at Shakespeare's Head over against Catherine Street in the Strand," or "at the Angel and Crown in St. Paul's Churchyard," or "at the Two Golden Balls in Hart Street, the upper end of Bow Street, Covent Garden," and so forth.

4. Though the streets were cleaner and wider than before the Great Fire, a foul puddle occupied the middle, and two lesser puddles, known as the kennels, the sides.

There were, of course, no trams, buses, hansom, or motor cars to be seen, but heavy hackney coaches were common. As, however, they had no springs, and the streets were cobbled, a ride in one of them was little better than a series of violent jolts. No wonder ladies preferred to be carried in a Sedan chair by a couple of brawny chairmen. Boats were in waiting at the waterside stairs to carry passengers up and down the river, and this method of getting from place to place was popular. Hawkers of all kinds thronged the streets, and thimble-riggers cheated the foolish at every street corner. Outside the shops the apprentices still cried, "What d'ye lack?" and begged passers-by to come inside and purchase.

5. At night rows of oil-lamps twinkled feebly along the main streets, and all who had business or pleasure abroad were obliged to hire link-boys to light them on their way. Frequently these boys were in league with footpads, and had a share of the plunder. Gangs of riotous young men called Mohocks, after the name of a North American Indian tribe, roamed the streets after dark, and amused themselves by roughly ill-treating men and women who happened to fall into their hands. One gang, known as the Nickers, used to go about breaking with handfuls of coppers the windows of those shopkeepers who pressed them to pay their bills.

6. We get a vivid idea of life in the reign of Queen Anne from the pages of the *Spectator*, that delightful little daily paper written chiefly by two of the greatest writers of the day, Joseph Addison and Richard Steele. We also learn much from the plays which have come down to us, and from the paintings of Hogarth, whose pictures were



4

(Seated figure.)

6

(Seated figure.)

7

THE TOAST OF THE KIT-CAT CLUB.

(From the celebrated picture by W. F. Yeames, R.A. By permission of the Artist, who kindly supplied the following key.)

The following persons are represented :—1. CHRISTOPHER CAT, keeper of the coffee-house at which the club met. 2. JOHN CHURCHILL, afterwards Duke of Marlborough. 3. JOHN DRYDEN, the poet. 4. SIR GODFREY KNELLER, the painter, who painted three-quarter length portraits (hence the term "Kit-Cat portraits" for paintings of this size) of forty-three members of the club. 5. WILLIAM CONGREVE, the dramatist. 6. SIR RICHARD STEELE, the author and dramatist, who was associated with his friend Joseph Addison in writing for the *Spectator*. 7. LADY MARY WORTLEY MONTAGUE. She was so clever that she presided at her father's table at a very early age. Afterwards she acquired a great reputation for her wit and beauty. Her letters are remarkably sprightly and entertaining. 8. The DUKE OF KINGSTON, father of Lady Mary Wortley Montague.

intended to warn people against the follies and vices of the time. The most lovable character in the *Spectator* is Sir Roger de Coverley, a country gentleman of no learning and no particular ability, but a thoroughly good-natured, warm-hearted man, who played his part as lord of the manor to the best of his ability, and was loved by all his neighbours and tenants.

7. The following passage from the *Spectator* gives you an excellent idea of the "terror by night" in the London streets. Sir Roger is going to the theatre, but fears there will be some danger in coming home late, in case the Mohocks should be abroad. Captain Sentry and Mr. Spectator agree to accompany him in his coach, and this is how he goes. "The Captain, who did not fail to meet me at the appointed Hour, bid Sir Roger fear nothing, for that he had put on the same sword which he made use of at the Battel of Steenkirk [fought between William the Third and the French thirty years before]. Sir Roger's Servants, and among the rest my old Friend the Butler, had, I found, provided themselves with good Oaken Plants to attend their master upon this occasion. When he had placed him in his Coach, with myself at his Left Hand, the Captain before him, and his Butler at the head of his Footmen in the Rear, we convoy'd him in safety to the Play House."

8. At Christmas time there was great good cheer in town and country alike. The *Spectator* tells us that Sir Roger always kept open house at Christmas. "I learned from him that he had killed eight fat Hogs for the Season, that he had dealt about his Chines very liberally amongst

his Neighbours, and that in particular he had sent a string of Hogs-puddings with a pack of Cards to every poor Family in the Parish. 'I have often thought,' says Sir Roger, 'it happens very well that *Christmas* should fall out in the Middle of the Winter. It is the most dead, uncomfortable Time of the Year, when the poor People would suffer very much from their Poverty and Cold if they had not good Cheer, warm Fires, and *Christmas* gambols to support them. I love to rejoice their poor Hearts at this season, and to see the whole Village merry in my great Hall."

9. Clubs at which men met for eating and drinking together were very common in the days of Queen Anne. Those who had any reason at all to bring them together used to unite in a club, and meet in the evening once or twice a week to enjoy themselves. All sorts of curious clubs sprang up. For example, there was a club of Fat Men, another of Scarecrows and Skeletons, and a third which met at the mutton-pie house, near Temple Bar, of one Christopher Cat, and was known as the Kit-Cat Club. Kit-Cat's became the meeting-place of the Whig statesmen of the day—that is, of those who favoured a Hanoverian king to succeed the Stuart Queen Anne. Addison and Steele, the writers of the *Spectator*, and other distinguished men, were members of this club. The picture on page 70 shows you certain leading members of this club toasting little Lady Mary Wortley Montagu, who afterwards became one of the most remarkable women of her time. Clubs were formed not only of gentlemen and wealthy tradesmen, but frequently of the poorer classes.



St. Paul's Cathedral.

The present cathedral is probably the third which has occupied the site. Early in the seventh century a cathedral was reared on the spot by Ethelbert, King of Kent. It was burned down in 1086, shortly after the Norman Conquest. Its successor, Old St. Paul's, was destroyed in the Great Fire of 1666. The present cathedral was the work of Sir Christopher Wren, who died in 1723 at the ripe age of ninety-one. The tablet over his tombstone says, "Reader, if thou seekest his monument, look around!"

10. Coffee and chocolate houses were common, and men flocked to them to gossip and hear the news of the day. When Sir Roger came up to London, he never failed to spend some time in them. Fashionable people amused themselves in the evening during summer by walking in the Mall in St. James's Park, in Spring Gardens—which afterwards became Vauxhall—and in the Mulberry Garden, where Buckingham Palace now stands. The ladies wore masks, and some of them had little black footboys to escort them. At Ranelagh Gardens there were cascades and fountains glittering in the sun, shady alleys and bowers, and at night fireworks and trees hung with coloured lamps. Amidst these scenes the beaux and the belles gathered in great numbers.

11. The theatres began to fill shortly after four o'clock. The actors did not wear the dress of the characters which they were supposed to represent, and there was little or no attempt at scenery. People went to the theatre to be seen rather than to see, and the ladies usually wore masks. Gambling was the great vice of the time, and gambling-houses of all kinds were open every night and all night. Duels with the sword were common, and frequently ended fatally.

12. The dress of the fashionable lady of the day needs some description. On her head she wore a wire frame covered with silk and trimmed with rows of lace and ribbons, which rose or fell according to the fashion of the moment. Such a headdress sometimes cost as much as £40. Her skirts, which were of the richest possible materials, were worn over a whalebone framework, which grew wider and

wider until, as the *Spectator* tells us, "they were blown up into a most enormous concave." The ladies were also fond of wearing many-coloured hoods.

13. The fashionable gentleman of the time was also remarkable for his appearance. His wig was the object of his greatest pride and care. The full-bottomed wig, consisting of a great mass of false hair which rolled down on the shoulders, was chiefly worn, though lighter wigs, such as the tie wig and the bob wig, were coming into fashion. Every morning the wig was newly powdered and curled, and its wearer carried an ivory or tortoise-shell comb, with which he dressed his wig while sitting in the Park or in the theatre. His long velvet coat of many colours, sometimes bordered with gold or silver lace, had the skirts stiffened out with whalebone. He wore knee-breeches, silk stockings, and buckled shoes; carried a cocked hat under his arm, a small sword by his side, and a snuff-box in his hand. Such, in outward appearance, was the beau of Queen Anne's time.

II. A GERMAN KING.

1. To-day we will visit a province of Germany which ought to be of considerable interest to us. Look at a map of Germany. Immediately south of the Danish peninsula you notice the province of Hanover, lying about the lower courses of the Elbe, the Weser, and the Ems. The capital of the province is the important manufacturing town of Hanover, which stands on both banks of the river Leine, at the intersection of roads and railways leading to

the great port of Hamburg, and to all the important commercial centres of Germany.

2. The old town is an irregularly-built place, with a number of interesting houses dating from the fifteenth century. We take the tram from the centre of the town, and soon find ourselves traversing a fine avenue of linden trees. At the end of the avenue is the Schloss or castle of Herrenhausen, the residence of the Hanoverian princes. Herrenhausen is a feeble copy of Versailles. It is surrounded by elaborate and artificial gardens adorned with Dutch statues, with fauns and dryads in stone, with fountains, pavilions, and a rustic theatre. As you wander through the gardens you are suddenly confronted with a colossal statue of the Electress Sophia, who died suddenly on this spot in the year 1714. Less than two months later her kinswoman, Queen Anne, passed away.

3. Now the Electress Sophia is an outstanding name in British annals. Let us examine her relationships, and learn how she came to be such an important figure in our history. In Book V. I told you something about the Princess Elizabeth, that daughter of James the First who married Frederick, the Elector Palatine. You will remember that he was the head of the German Protestants, and that he accepted, against his father-in-law's advice, the crown of Bohemia. Frederick's reign was extremely brief, and was brought to a sudden end by a disastrous defeat near Prague. The fugitive king and his queen had thirteen children, the youngest of whom was the very Sophia whose statue has just arrested our attention. Sophia was thus a granddaughter of James the First. When James the Second was driven from the throne of



HERRENHAUSEN.

(Photo by Georg Alpers, jun., Hanover.)

Herrenhausen Castle, Hanover, was the favourite residence of Kings George the First and George the Second. It was erected in 1698, and its gardens are a feeble copy of those at Versailles. In the grounds is a colossal statue to the Electress Sophia, upon whose heirs the English Parliament settled the crown in 1701.

England, she was a handsome, shrewd, accomplished woman of fifty-eight years of age, and for thirty years had been the wife of Ernest Augustus, the Protestant Elector of Hanover.

4. Ernest Augustus and his forefathers traced their descent from a certain Welf or Guelph, Duke of Bavaria, the son of a Marquis of Este, who had married the heiress of the Guelphs. Guelph married Judith, sister-in-law of the English king Harold who fell on Senlac Hill. His descendant, Henry the Lion, wedded Maud, the daughter of that powerful English king, Henry the Second, and also inherited the duchy of Brunswick, which afterwards developed into the Electorate of Hanover. From these facts you learn that long before the marriage of Sophia there had been a close association between the royal houses of England and Hanover. You also learn why the present dynasty of British sovereigns was sometimes called the Guelph line.

5. William and Mary had no children, and in 1700 Anne, who was to succeed them, lost the little boy who alone of her children had survived infancy. Sophia was now the only descendant of James the First who could ascend the throne according to the terms of the Bill of Rights, which, you will remember, insisted that the British sovereign must be a Protestant. Accordingly, in 1701, the Act of Settlement was passed. Parliament settled the crown on Sophia and her heirs, and thus she became the founder of the Hanoverian line which occupies the British throne to-day. When Queen Anne died, Sophia's son, George, who had been Elector of Hanover for sixteen years, became King of Great Britain and Ireland, and thus began that connection between this country and Hanover which lasted down to the accession of Queen Victoria.

6. The Jacobites were extremely active during the closing years of Queen Anne's reign. You already know that after the queen's famous quarrel with "Mrs. Freeman" she put herself in the hands of the Tories, who were Jacobite in sympathy. At the time of Queen Anne's death there was a Tory Ministry in existence, with that gifted but selfish and insincere statesman, Viscount Bolingbroke, at its head. As soon as the news of the queen's death arrived a Privy Council was summoned; but to the consternation of the Tory members, three dukes—Shrewsbury, Somerset, and Argyll, the first of them a Tory in favour of the Act of Settlement, and the other two Whigs—appeared uninvited, and claimed to take part in the proceedings as members of the Council. At their instigation other Privy Councillors were called in, with the result that the Tories were outvoted,

the Whigs seized the reins of government, and all danger of a Jacobite succession was averted.

7. The guards at the Tower were doubled ; four regiments were marched on London ; the fleet was equipped, and the ports were protected. The new king was at once proclaimed, and though there was no enthusiasm for him, there was no counter-demonstration in favour of the Pretender. Bolingbroke, when urged by the Archbishop of Canterbury to proclaim James the Third at Charing Cross, promptly refused. He saw clearly that it was madness to attempt to overthrow the Act of Settlement. Muttering in his wrath that had he been granted six weeks for preparation he would have given England a different king, he prepared to fly the country.

8. The only excuse for the presence of George the First on the British throne was the impossibility of the Stuarts. They were devout and sincere Roman Catholics, and the nation had determined to be ruled by a Protestant sovereign. George the First was simply king in default of a suitable scion of the old house, and he never regarded himself as anything else. “‘Loyalty,’ he must think,” says Thackeray, “‘as applied to me—it is absurd ! There are fifty nearer heirs to the throne than I am. I am but an accident, and you fine Whig gentlemen take me for your own sake, not for mine. You Tories hate me.’”

9. George was King of Great Britain and Ireland for thirteen years ; yet he was never at home in this country, and was never once fully assured of his crown. He could not speak the English language ; he disliked his British subjects and their ways ; and he was totally ignorant of

politics. He knew so little about British affairs and British methods of government that he was obliged to rely wholly upon the Whig statesmen who had changed the succession and placed him on the throne. During George's reign the Whigs obtained such an ascendancy that they practically ruled the country for the next fifty-six years.



NO. 10 DOWNING STREET.
The residence of the Prime Minister.

10. Now, thanks to the political ignorance of this sordid, selfish, unamiable, uninteresting German king, a remarkable change in the method of governing the country had its beginnings in his reign. Come with me to Whitehall, which we have already visited. Near the south end of it is an undistinguished little street, opening at the top into a small square, in which there stands a simple mansion

of dull, brown brick, bearing no outward sign of special importance. Nevertheless, 10 Downing Street is perhaps the most important residence in the whole land. In it lives the Prime Minister, the head of the Government, and, next to the Archbishop of Canterbury, the first subject of the kingdom. Close at hand is the fine building which

contains, amongst other important State departments, the Foreign Office. Within the Foreign Office the meetings of the Cabinet are usually held.

11. Now what is this Cabinet? From an early period the kings of England were assisted by a Privy Council nominated by the sovereign, and consisting of men from whom they could seek advice in the work of government. Gradually this Council became too large for that secrecy and dispatch which are necessary when matters of great delicacy and pressing importance have to be settled. Then the king began to resort for advice to a small knot of leading ministers, who formed a kind of "inner ring" known as the Cabinet, because their meetings were held in an inner room or "cabinet" of the Council apartments.

12. The ministers who formed this "inner ring," and indeed all the ministers who managed the affairs of State, were then regarded as simply the servants of the sovereign, to be appointed or dismissed at his or her pleasure. Under Charles the Second and James the Second the Cabinet consisted mainly of the king's friends, who were pledged to uphold him against the rest of the Council. They were removable at the king's pleasure. Even placid, easy-going Queen Anne had been accustomed to remove her great officers of State without consulting the rest of the Cabinet, or even considering that Parliament was worth consultation at all. A modern Cabinet, however, is on an entirely different footing, though it is still in theory a committee of the Privy Council.

13. After a general election, the leader of the party which has obtained a majority at the polls is "sent for" by the king

and asked to form a Ministry. If he agrees to do so, he selects from the leading members of Parliament who support him a number of noblemen and gentlemen who undertake to fill the various great offices of the State. These men form a Ministry, of which the Prime Minister is the head. From the Ministry he makes a further selection of those who are to form the "Cabinet." Thus each member of the Cabinet has a threefold duty: he is a member of Parliament; he is the head of a department of State; and he is a member of the small "inner ring" which practically governs the country.

14. The Cabinet, thus formed, meets from time to time in private, and its proceedings are secret. It stands or falls as a whole, and is jointly responsible to Parliament for all acts of government. A vote of censure passed on any minister is a vote against the Cabinet, which thereupon resigns, and makes way for a new Cabinet which has the confidence of the House of Commons. No one but the Prime Minister can appoint a member of the Cabinet, and no one but the Prime Minister can ask a member to resign. If a member of the Cabinet does not approve of its proceedings, he can lay down his office; but while he is a member of the Cabinet he is responsible, along with his colleagues, for all its proceedings. When Queen Anne died, the modern method of selecting the members of the Cabinet did not exist, nor was its "oneness" or solidarity recognized.

15. Now what was the great change which had its beginnings in the reign of George the First? As you already know, he was ignorant of the British system of government and of the English language. His powerful

minister, Walpole, knew neither German nor French, and so King and Prime Minister had to converse in Latin, which neither of them understood well. George could no longer preside at the meetings of the Cabinet, and he did not care enough for Britain to concern himself with its public affairs.

16. Thus the king lost his right to preside over the "Cabinet," which gradually became the most important and powerful body in the country. It took the work of government entirely out of the king's hands; the king no longer ruled, but reigned. Within the seventy years following the accession of George the First the Cabinet assumed its modern shape. It was selected from members of Parliament belonging to the party having a majority in the House of Commons; it became united in responsibility, and its members acted not as individuals but as one unanimous body.

12. THE "'FIFTEEN."

1. Riots are rare in our country, but they do take place from time to time. If you have read an account of a serious riot in the newspapers, you have probably seen the statement that "the Mayor then read the Riot Act"—that is, he publicly declared the terms of an Act of Parliament which states that if twelve persons continue together for one hour after a proclamation has been made bidding them disperse, they can be arrested and tried for the offence, or, in cases of necessity, the military can be ordered to charge them or fire upon them. Now this Act was passed in the

second year of the reign of George I., at a time of great excitement and disorder in the country. What caused the excitement and gave rise to the disorder?

2. You already know that the Jacobites had made preparations for seating James the Third on the throne of his fathers as the successor to Queen Anne, but that they were foiled by her sudden death and by the prompt action of the three opposition dukes—Argyll, Somerset, and Shrewsbury. The strong Whig Parliament which met in March 1715 proceeded to impeach the three leaders of the Jacobites—Bolingbroke, the Earl of Oxford, and the Duke of Ormonde. Bolingbroke and Ormonde did not wait for the storm to break, but fled to France. Oxford remained and stood his trial; but the lords who tried him came to no decision, and he was sent back to the Tower, where he remained for nearly two years, after which he regained his liberty.

3. Meanwhile, the Jacobite discontent, smouldering under the surface of English society, broke out in riot and destruction. In London, Jacobite and Whig mobs came into conflict almost daily. The "Jacks," as the supporters of the exiled house were familiarly called, and the "Muggites," as the Whigs were nicknamed from their habit of meeting in certain taverns or "mug-houses," had each their own places of resort, in which raids and counter-raids were planned. Staffordshire was red-hot with sedition, and various other parts of the country were in a similar condition. So menacing and destructive did the mobs become that an old Tudor statute was revived and passed into law as the Riot Act. It still remains as a permanent result of "the 'Fifteen."

4. Bolingbroke and Ormonde no sooner found themselves

safe overseas than they began to organize an invasion, with the active assistance of Lewis the Fourteenth, the old and staunch friend of the exiled Stuarts. Before the preparations were complete Lewis ended his remarkable career, leaving France on the verge of bankruptcy. The new king, his grandson, was only five years of age, and the regency was entrusted to Philip of Orleans, who was at his wits' end for money, and therefore was forced to be at peace with all nations. Fearing to risk war with Britain, he put an end to the schemes of Bolingbroke, and refused any further aid to the Stuart cause. This was a crushing blow to Jacobitism; but Bolingbroke, hoping against hope, continued to incite his friends to rebellion.

5. Now began the unfortunate series of enterprises known as "the 'Fifteen." Ormonde was the first to shoot his bolt, and a very ineffective bolt it was. Believing that the Jacobites of the southern English counties were ready to rise for King James, he sailed from Normandy and landed on the coast of Devonshire, only to discover that he had been bitterly deceived. In Scotland and on the Borders, however, a rising took place, and for a moment seemed formidable. I told you in Lesson 2 how the Highland chiefs hated the house of Argyll, and flocked to the standard of "Bonnie Dundee" to fight nominally for King James, but actually against the Campbells. The Highlanders had never been thoroughly pacified; they still hated the Campbells, and an Argyll was now the great Whig chief of Scotland and the most powerful man in the country.

6. The leading Jacobite in Scotland at the time was John Erskine, Earl of Mar, commonly known as "Bobbing John"

because of his fickle and shifty character. He had been chief minister in Scotland under Bolingbroke, but had been removed from his post when his master fell. "Bobbing John," seeing that his hope of political advancement had now vanished, determined on rebellion. At Kirkmichael, near Braemar, he met a score of Highland chiefs who were assembled at what was called a hunting-party. The chiefs needed but little persuasion to take up arms in the Stuart cause; they speedily donned the white cockade, and arrayed their clans. Aberdeen, Dundee, Perth, almost every place of note north of the Tay, declared for the rebels, and the local Jacobites were only prevented from seizing Edinburgh Castle by a secret warning conveyed to the garrison.

7. Argyll took command of the royal troops, and Mar began his march south. On the twenty-eighth of September, with five thousand claymores, he entered Perth; but instead of pushing on to Edinburgh and sweeping the Lowlands, he lingered in Perth, waiting for something to happen in England. In the meantime, Argyll was collecting troops from Ireland and other places, and his army at Stirling was growing in strength every day.

8. Not until the tenth of November did Mar move out of Perth, with an army now swollen to ten thousand men. On the thirteenth, at Sheriffmuir, three miles from Dunblane, the weary Highland army sighted the foe. Bonnets were tossed in the air and loud cheers arose as the order was given to advance. A discharge of muskets from the left wing of the rebel army opened the battle. Argyll, dispatching a squadron of cavalry over a frozen swamp on his right, fell on this motley mass of musketeers with a series of

furious charges. Ten times did the fragments of the Highland array reunite and endeavour to stand before the sweeping onset of the dragoons, but all in vain. Mar's left wing was completely broken.

9. On the other wing, however, Mar had repeated Argyll's success. His Highlanders, undismayed by the volleys of the English infantry, scattered the left wing of the royal army like chaff before the wind. The two victorious right wings were so exhausted that they could not immediately renew the fight. While Argyll awaited a new attack he heard the skirl of Mar's bagpipes growing fainter and fainter as the Highlanders abandoned the field.

10. On the very day that Sheriffmuir was fought, armed Jacobitism in England was trampled out once and for all. Such vigorous measures had the Government taken that the rebellion was confined to the north. Forster, a Protestant member of Parliament, aided by the Earls of Derwentwater, Kenmure, Nithsdale, Wintoun, and Carnwath, raised a small force of rebels, and marched into Lancashire as far south as Preston, where an almost unarmed mob joined them. The rebels were now in a hopeless plight: two bodies of royalist troops were marching on them from the north and the south respectively. At Preston there was a fierce fight in the streets, but at nightfall Forster was forced to surrender. The English rising ended in utter defeat, and England never rose for the Jacobite cause again.

11. Mar fell back from Sheriffmuir to Perth, where the old story of Killiecrankie was repeated. The Highlanders deserted daily, and meanwhile Argyll was rapidly strengthening his forces. At this unhappy moment the Pretender,

James Stuart, himself appeared on the scene. Landing at Peterhead with a staff of six officers, he made a public entrance into Dundee, and afterwards established himself in the old palace of Scone, where for a brief space he played the king. He was, however, the most forlorn leader of a forlorn hope imaginable. The pale, leaden-eyed, weak-spirited, dejected prince gave the death-blow to his own cause.

12. When the advance of Argyll was announced, a general retreat was decided upon. Over the frozen Tay and along the Carse of Gowrie the hopeless Jacobite troops marched to Dundee, and there turned northwards to Montrose, where the Pretender slipped out of a back door, picked up Mar at his lodgings, and soon was scudding under full sail for the coast of France. Struggling northward, his poor deluded followers rapidly melted away. Lords Derwentwater and Kenmure paid the penalty by losing their heads on Tower Hill. Lord Nithsdale, also doomed to the block, escaped in his wife's clothes, and most of the other leading rebels managed to find safety. In all, some twenty-eight perished on the scaffold.

13. An important alteration in the duration of Parliament was another outcome of this ill-starred rising. In 1694 an Act of Parliament had fixed the life of a Parliament at three years. The general election of 1715 had returned a large majority of Whigs, and in the disturbed state of the country the party in power was anxious to avoid a general election. An Act was therefore passed making the possible duration of Parliament seven years. The Septennial Act, as it is called, remained in force until 1911, when the term was reduced to five years.

13. WALPOLE.—I.

1. The starting-point for our lesson to-day is the Royal Exchange, which stands opposite the Bank of England. The magnificent building in which the greater part of the business of the Metropolis is conducted is the third erection of the kind which has occupied the site. The first was founded by Sir Thomas Gresham, a famous Elizabethan merchant, who did much to foster the vast commerce on which our greatness as a nation depends. Sir Thomas Gresham's building was destroyed in the Great Fire of 1666, and a similar fate overtook its successor in 1838. The present building contains a number of frescoes painted by distinguished artists, and illustrative of great events in the history of the nation. Some of these frescoes have been reproduced in this series of histories.

2. Close to the Exchange is 'Change Alley, a little street of offices where bareheaded clerks come and go, and nothing exciting now takes place. Standing in this alley, let us recall the state of extraordinary excitement, almost amounting to national madness, which overtook the nation and wrought such widespread ruin and misery in the year 1720. For several years after the Peace of Utrecht a passion for money speculation grew up, not only in England, but in other parts of Europe. In France, which, as you know, was on the eve of bankruptcy, a Scotsman, named John Law, established a company which was to have a monopoly of trade in the valley of the Mississippi in North America, on condition that it paid off the State debts. In the year 1719 two other companies were united with it, and then

there was a sudden and immense rise in the price of the shares, till before long they were twelve times as valuable as they had been at first. Men flocked to buy the shares in the hope of making rapid and easy fortunes, and the French Government suddenly found its coffers full.

3. The success of this scheme brought about a somewhat similar movement in England. In 1711 a company, known as the South Sea Company, had been formed to carry on trade with Spanish America and the countries of the Pacific. The company had been very successful, and its shares were so eagerly sought after that they rose to a high price. Emboldened by the success of John Law's scheme in France, the ambitious directors now projected a vast and complicated plan for making themselves the greatest trading concern in the world.

4. They offered the Government seven millions of money if it would hand over to them the management of the National Debt. The directors did not expect a profit from their management of the debt, but they thought that they would be able to persuade the people who had lent money to the Government to exchange their Government stock for shares in the South Sea Company. In this way they hoped to accumulate such a large capital that they would be able to carry on trade with all the world and reap huge profits.

5. This was a wild, mad scheme, but the leading members of the Government thought it was likely to be successful, and they agreed to the proposal. Almost at once the value of South Sea shares went up by leaps and bounds. False reports about the vast profits of the company began to circulate, and a terrible fever of gambling possessed the people.

Every one who could lay his or her hands on money rushed to 'Change Alley to buy South Sea stock. Men drew their money out of their banks or businesses, county squires sold their houses and lands, courtiers parted with their jewels and other valuables, widows turned their annuities into ready money, and 'Change Alley from early morning until late evening was thronged with men and women of all sorts and conditions eager to pay almost fabulous prices for a share in the company which promised such vast returns. In a few weeks the £100 shares were worth £1,000.

6. Stock-jobbing now seemed to be the only occupation of the people. At once all sorts of companies were floated, some of them real and serious, but most of them mere swindles. A rascal, for example, would take a room in 'Change Alley, or even a table in the open street, and announce a new company for discovering perpetual motion, for planting mulberry trees and breeding silkworms in Chelsea Park, for fattening hogs by a new process, for discovering the land of Ophir, for engaging in a secret undertaking "which shall in due time be revealed," or for some other ridiculous project; and people would flock to him and clamour to buy his shares. In the evening the promoter, with his pockets full of money, would quietly disappear, and nothing more would be heard of him. No one thought for a moment of inquiring whether these new concerns were genuine or practical; thousands of persons were ready to part with their money in exchange for worthless scraps of paper.

7. These "bubble companies," of course, began to burst immediately, and large numbers of people were ruined.



The South Sea Bubble: A Scene in 'Change Alley in 1720.
(From the picture by E. M. Ward, R.A., in the Tate Gallery.)

Then investors in the South Sea Company began to take fright, and were ready to part with their shares at any price. Before long the shares which had sold readily at £1,000 were as low as £135. The company could not pay the seven millions promised to the Government, and had to suspend payment. A loud cry of rage and despair went up from the ruined investors, and vengeance was called down upon the Government, which had sanctioned the mad scheme.

8. Parliament ordered an inquiry, and discovered that all sorts of persons in high places had made fortunes out of the company. Not only members of the Court, but the Prince of Wales, and even the ministers themselves, had helped to blow up the "bubble," and had sold out their shares at a vast profit before it vanished into thin air. One minister committed suicide; and another minister, when attacked in the House of Lords for his share in the matter, fell down dead in an apoplectic fit. The Government was driven from office, and the nation turned to the only man who was capable of saving all that could be saved from the wreck.

9. Who was this man? He was Sir Robert Walpole, a big, rough Norfolk baronet of the John Bull type, who had entered Parliament twenty years before, and had made a place for himself in politics as a stalwart Whig during the reign of Queen Anne. He had already held office, but had been sent to the Tower on a charge of "high breach of trust and notorious corruption." In defending himself he had issued a pamphlet which showed him to be "the best master of figures of any man of his time." Walpole had all



Dr. Johnson in Lord Chesterfield's Anteroom, waiting for an Audience, 1748.
(From the picture by E. M. Ward, R.A., in the Tate Gallery.)

along denounced the "South Sea Bubble," though he had managed to make a good deal out of it. He was morally no better and no worse than the men of his time, but he had great political ability, a remarkable knowledge of finance, an unusual share of sound common sense, and a wonderful tact in managing men.

10. To him at this terrible crisis the nation turned. Walpole became Chancellor of the Exchequer, and was soon ready with a plan for dealing with the national disaster. He proposed to remit the seven millions due to the Government by the company; seize the estates of the directors to the amount of two million pounds, and with this and what remained of the company's capital pay a dividend of about 33 per cent. to the holders of South Sea shares. This was the best that could be done, and, thanks to Walpole's ability, the disaster was not so great as it was at first expected to be. The "South Sea Bubble" was thus indirectly the means of placing Walpole in the highest seat of power. He held office practically without a break for twenty-one years, and during that time he was the real ruler of the country.

11. Walpole made himself absolute master of the Whig party, and obtained great influence over George the First, who said, "I parted with him once against my inclination, and I will never part with him again so long as he is willing to serve me." Walpole has been accused of being grossly ignorant, of caring nothing for foreign policy, of declaring that "every man has his price," and acting up to his belief by bribing members of Parliament in the most unblushing and shameless manner. It is also said that he exercised a

thoroughly bad influence in politics; that he lowered the moral tone of a whole generation by his sneers at honesty and patriotism; that he was so afraid of abler men than himself that he surrounded himself with mere tools; and that rather than quit office he embarked on courses which he believed to be disastrous to the nation. Undoubtedly there is some truth in these charges, though they are all, except the last, overstated.

12. He was certainly not a scholar nor a reader, but he was by no means illiterate, as many of his speeches show. He was exceedingly hard-working and painstaking, and few more industrious ministers have ever sat in Downing Street. He was a great peace minister at a time when his country specially needed peace, and his chief concern was to keep clear of foreign war and establish the house of Hanover firmly on the throne. It has been shown that his famous maxim, "Every man has his price," is a misquotation, and refers to a special group of men and not to humanity at large. We know of only two instances in which he bought the votes of members of Parliament for hard cash, though undoubtedly he gave offices and preferment to those who supported him, and placed his friends and relations in posts of great profit. In doing this he only followed the evil custom of the time. He did many things that a British statesman of to-day would blush to think of, but he lived in an age when statesmen were far from the ideals of honest and upright dealing which obtain to-day.

13. He was no more wedded to power and office than many other great statesmen. A well-known writer has observed: "The only question with which history needs to

concern itself is not whether Walpole was intensely wedded to power, but whether his possession and use of it were important for the public good." There is little doubt that in his day and generation Walpole, on the whole, served the nation faithfully and well. "But for Sir Robert Walpole, we should have had the Pretender back again. But for his obstinate love of peace, we should have had wars which the nation was not strong enough or united enough to endure.....We should have had revolt, commotion, want, and tyrannous misrule, in place of a quarter of a century of peace, freedom, and material prosperity."

14. WALPOLE.—II.

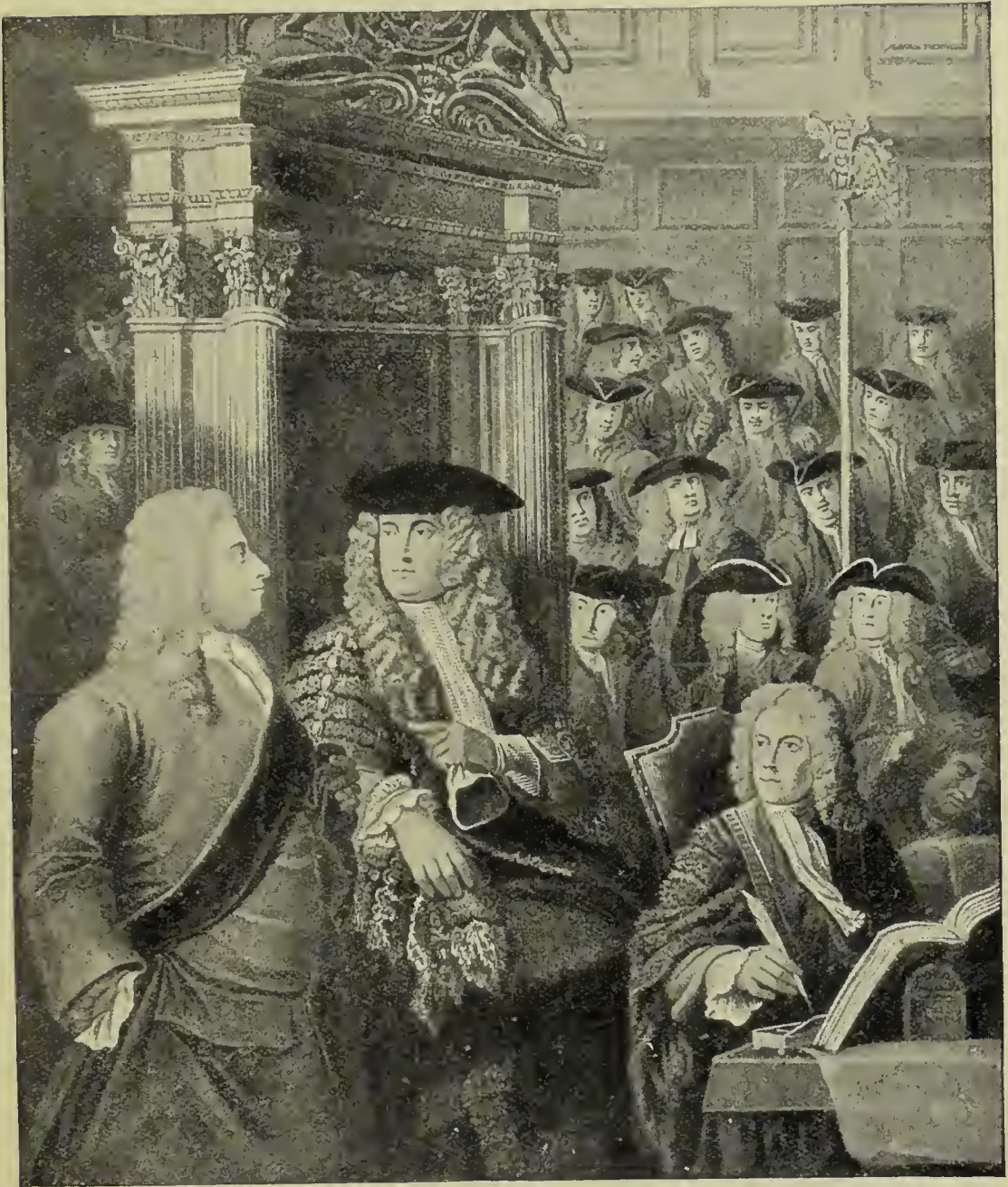
1. George the First, Walpole's staunch friend, died in 1727, and was succeeded by his son, George, Prince of Wales. The new sovereign had hated his father, and he was bitterly opposed to Walpole, chiefly because he had been his father's friend. Forthwith he ordered Walpole to give up the seals of office. Nevertheless, a few days later, he was obliged to ask his father's old minister to take up the reins of power once more.

2. The new George was a better man than his father, and he would have liked to play a large part in politics if the Whigs had allowed him to do so. He was a busy, irritable little man, who had fought well in Marlborough's wars, and was vastly proud of his performance. He spoke English fluently, though with a strong German accent. His life was coarse, and he cared nothing for arts and learn-

ing. As he himself said, "I don't like boetry, and I don't like bainting." Naturally he gave little or no encouragement to the group of remarkable writers who adorned his reign. Even a man of such splendid gifts as Samuel Johnson experienced the most sordid poverty, and had to wait upon the favour of the rich and great. The queen, Caroline of Anspach, however, had all the good qualities which he lacked. She was clever, patient, shrewd, and a lover of letters and arts. She and Walpole were the best of friends, and it was mainly owing to her influence that the great minister was retained in his post.

3. Three events of the remaining years of Walpole's life must now be briefly recalled. Walpole, as you will remember, was a great financier, and the greatest commercial minister that the country had ever seen. George the First firmly believed that Walpole could make gold out of nothing. In his day it was the custom to tax nearly all the goods that were imported into this country. This led to a vast amount of smuggling, by which the revenue was greatly defrauded. In 1733 Walpole made the first attempt to put an end to smuggling by bringing about free trade—that is, by admitting most of our imports free of taxation.

4. He began by proposing that the duty on tobacco should be reduced, and that instead of being collected when it landed the tobacco should be stored in warehouses, and duty should only be paid when it was taken out to be sold in the country. If the merchant who imported the tobacco wished to send it to some other country, he was to be allowed to do so without any payment to the revenue



Walpole.

Onslow.

Godolphin.

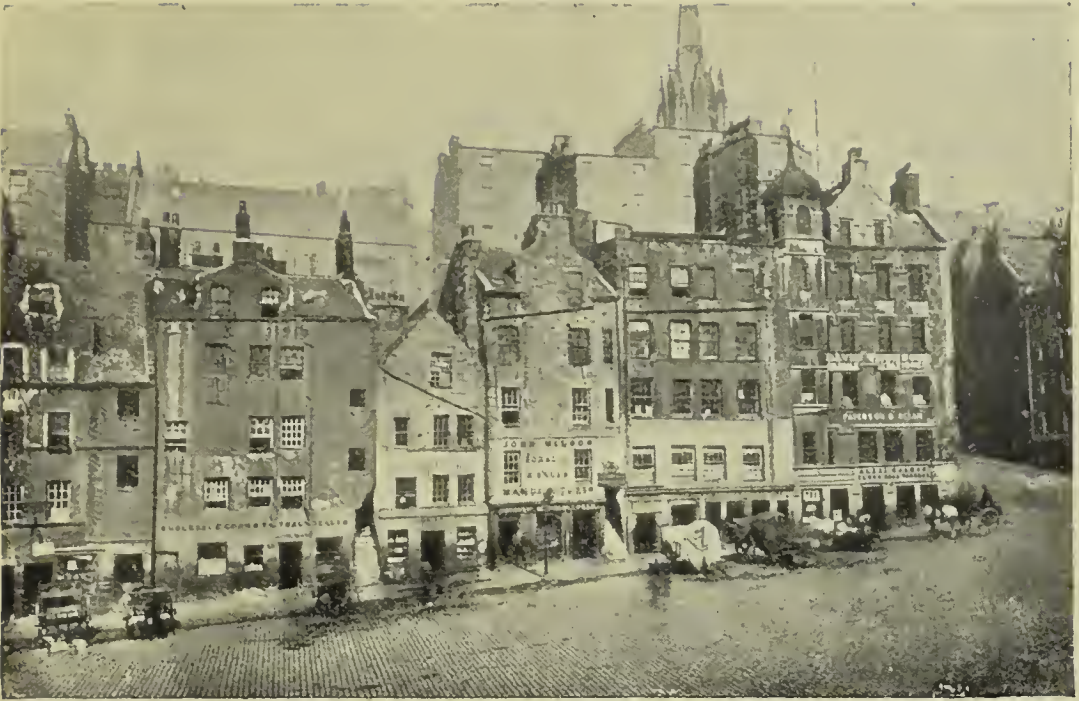
THE HOUSE OF COMMONS IN THE DAYS OF WALPOLE.

at all. In this way Walpole hoped to decrease smuggling, help the honest trader, collect the tax in an easier way,

and make London a free port and the market of the world.

5. Most people now recognize that Walpole's plan was wisdom itself. Nevertheless, it met with the most furious opposition. The debate in Parliament was carried on with an angry mob assailing the doors. An attempt was actually made to assault Walpole as he went to his carriage. Jacobite writers eagerly seized the opportunity to inflame the nation by all sorts of misrepresentations, and mobs ran about the streets shouting, "No slavery, no excise." There were traitors in the camp too, and Walpole saw clearly that he could not carry his Bill without plunging the country into confusion. "I will not be the minister," he said, "to enforce taxes at the expense of blood." Accordingly he withdrew the Bill, and made short work of the foes in his own household who had helped to defeat him. He drove a minister from office, and two noblemen from their commands in the army. The failure of the Excise Bill, as it was called, was the beginning of Walpole's downfall.

6. Early in his career Walpole had angered Scotland by putting a sixpenny tax on every barrel of ale brewed in Great Britain. Scotland had hitherto been free from this tax, and there were violent tumults when it was enforced. In 1736, three years after the withdrawal of the Excise Bill, Edinburgh was the scene of an extraordinary outbreak. A smuggler named Wilson was confined with an accomplice named Robertson in the Tolbooth or jail of Edinburgh. The spot where the prison formerly stood is now marked on the roadway near St. Giles' Church by a heart-shaped device.



THE GRASSMARKET, EDINBURGH.
Scene of the Porteous riot.

Wilson had generously helped Robertson to escape, and when he was brought out for execution the mob in the Grassmarket began to pelt the soldiers.

7. Captain Porteous, who was in charge of the soldiers, rashly ordered his men to fire, and some of the rioters were killed. For this he was tried and condemned to death, but was reprieved until further inquiry could be made. Thereupon the Edinburgh mob resolved to "lynch" the culprit. At tuck of drum a great crowd assembled on the night of September 7, 1736, disarmed the city guard, forced its way into the Tolbooth, dragged forth the unhappy captain from his hiding-place in the chimney of his cell, and hanged him from a dyer's pole in the Grassmarket. You may read a vivid account of the whole circumstances in

the early chapters of Sir Walter Scott's "Heart of Midlothian."

8. The matter was the subject of long and bitter debate in Parliament. A Bill was brought in to punish Edinburgh by imprisoning its Lord Provost and disqualifying him from ever acting as a magistrate again. Further, the town guard was to be abolished, and the gates of the Netherbow were to be removed. The Scottish members, however, opposed the Bill so successfully that Walpole made it far less drastic, and in this form it passed. Parliament spent five months in declaring that a man should never again be a magistrate who had never wished to be one, and in raising £2,000 from the city of Edinburgh for the widow of Captain Porteous.

9. In the next year Queen Caroline died. On her deathbed she said to Walpole, "I have nothing to say to you but to recommend the king, and my children, and the kingdom to your care." Her death removed a great source of power from Walpole. He was hated by the Prince of Wales, who was a vain, childish, untruthful man and a most undutiful son. Walpole had opposed a large increase in the prince's allowance, and for this reason the prince had joined the Opposition, and considered Walpole his enemy. Nevertheless, the old minister faced the future with a bluff courage.

10. A great question, of the utmost importance to Great Britain, now began to agitate the nation. Hitherto Walpole's guiding principle had been to keep out of European strife. War meant heavy taxes and an interruption to trade and manufactures at a time when Britain was adding every year to her wealth and strength. It meant, too, a rousing of the Jacobites and an invasion of the country by the Pre-

tender. The burdens of war, Walpole knew, would make the House of Hanover unpopular, and would probably mean the re-establishment of the Stuarts on the throne. For these reasons Walpole was firmly fixed on peace. He was soon, however, against his better judgment, to be hustled into war.

11. At this time the Continent was much disturbed by what was called the "War of the Polish Succession," in which Austria fought unsuccessfully against Spain, France, and Turkey. "Madam," said Walpole to the queen one morning in the year 1734, "there are fifty thousand men slain this year in Europe, and not one Englishman." Nevertheless, this drawing together of France and Spain was the very danger against which William the Third had fought all his life. The kings of France and Spain, who were uncle and nephew, had actually made a secret "family compact," by which they had bound themselves to overcome Britain on the sea and to crush her trade. Spain soon began to show her teeth.

12. Britain had certain treaty rights in regard to trade with Spain and the Spanish colonies. Attempts on the part of British merchants to go beyond these rights led the Spaniards to insist on searching British ships on the high seas, chiefly in order to stop the smuggling which was so common with their colonies. When doing this they often treated British sailors with great cruelty, and the ill-feeling between the countries grew apace.

13. The merchants set the nation on fire with many a tale of atrocities on the Spanish Main. Members read letters to the House of Commons about seventy of our

brave sailors lying in Spanish dungeons. "Our countrymen in chains!" cried a city alderman in his place in Parliament, "and slaves to the Spaniards! Is not this enough to fire the coldest? And shall we sit here debating about words and forms, while the sufferings of our countrymen call loudly for redress?" A Captain Jenkins who was brought to the bar of the House declared that, seven years before, his ship had been boarded by Spaniards, who had torn off his ear, and had told him to carry it to his king. When asked what he thought on the occasion, Jenkins replied, "I commended my soul to my God and my cause to my country."

14. A war fever speedily attacked the nation, and Walpole found himself goaded on every side. He agreed that the conduct of the Spanish governors and captains deserved sharp punishment, but he still believed that redress could be obtained by peaceful means. "He insisted that war with the nation with whom our trade was greatest would do us more harm than anything to be gained from it would do us good," but all in vain. An attempt to discuss the question with Spain fell through, and in October 1739 war was declared. Every bell in London rang out in joyous peal, and Walpole said bitterly, "Ah, they are ringing the bells to-day; they will soon be wringing their hands."

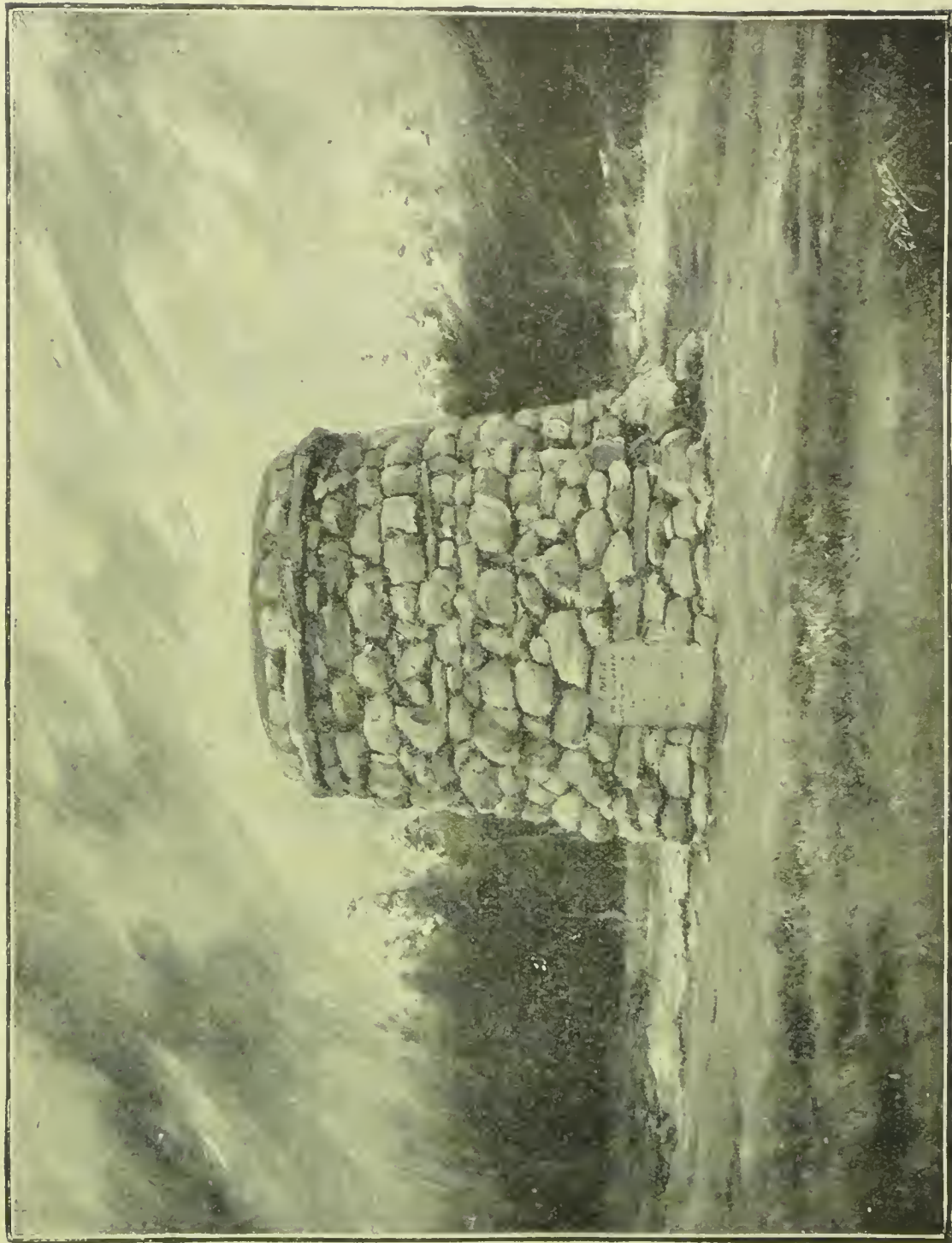
15. Walpole had now abandoned his old principle; but he did not resign, and leave the conduct of the war to those who were so eager for it. In this lies the most serious stain on his political character. Britain had now taken the field in the first of the four great continental wars which covered the greater part of the eighteenth century.

15. THE "'FORTY-FIVE."—I.

1. To-day we will visit that Scottish battlefield on which the Jacobite cause was crushed for ever. We speed northward to Inverness, the "capital of the Highlands." It is a busy, prosperous town in a fair and fertile valley, through which flows a river, broad, swift, and clear. Here we find ourselves at the chief eastern portal to the Northern Highlands. We do not linger in Inverness, though it has many objects of interest to show us, but make it the starting-point for a visit to Culloden, or Drummossie Moor, some five miles away. The greater part of the moor has now been planted with firs, but some of it remains as it was on the fatal day when one of the most romantic chapters in all British history came to a terrible close.

2. Let us stand by yonder cairn, built of stones formerly scattered about the moor, and read the inscription: "The battle of Culloden was fought on this moor, 16th April 1746. The graves of the gallant Highlanders who fought for Scotland and Prince Charlie are marked by the names of their clans." Near at hand is a succession of small cairns marking the graves of the dead. Standing on this dreary moor, the death-scene of the Jacobite cause, let us review the events which led up to the disastrous defeat.

3. In the last lesson I told you how Walpole, against his better judgment, was driven into war with Spain. As might have been expected, the war did not prosper in his hands. An expedition captured Porto Bello, on the Atlantic coast of the Isthmus of Panama, but an attack on Cartagena hopelessly failed, owing to the quarrels of the British com-



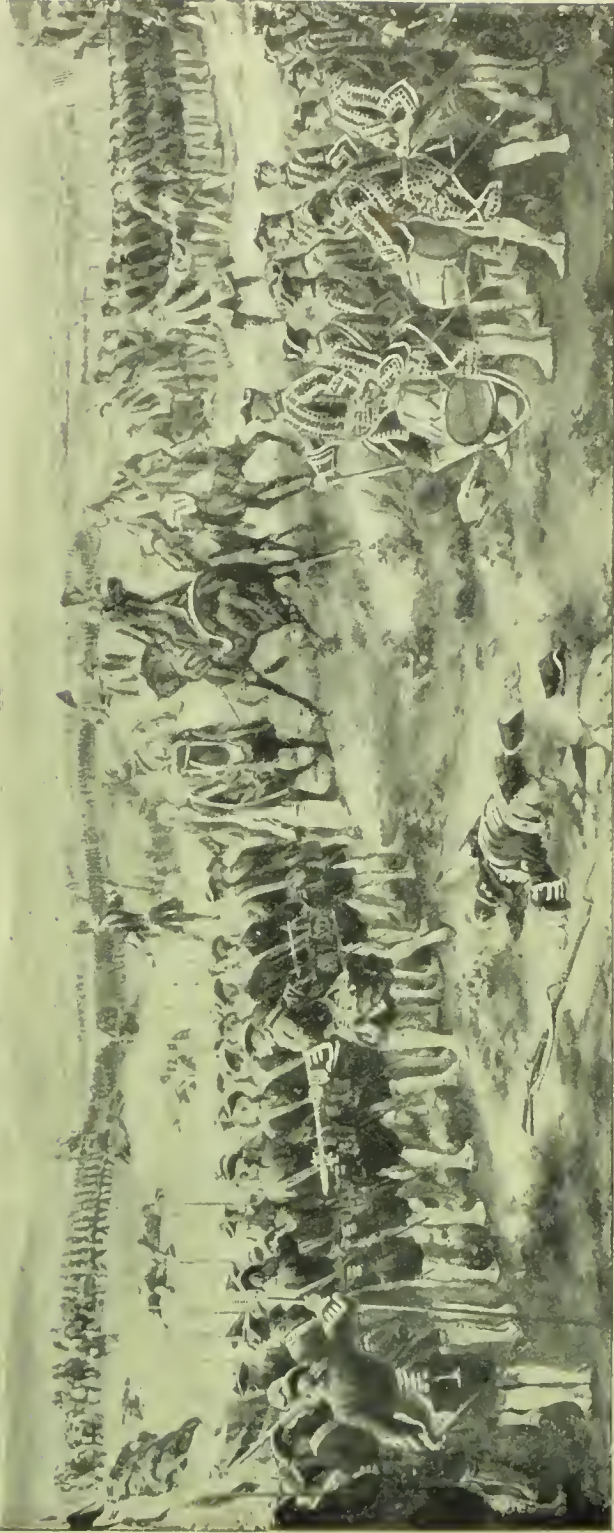
THE CAIRN ON CULLODEN MOOR.

(From the picture by G. Vuillier.)

manders and to the fever which struck down the men in the trenches. Walpole was bitterly attacked in Parliament, but a motion to remove him from office was defeated in both Houses. Nevertheless, the day of his fall was not far off. On February 2, 1742, he found that his majority had dwindled away, and that he must resign. Thus ended his long tenure of power.

4. His successors were soon to be faced with that European struggle which Walpole had foreseen as the outcome of war with Spain. During the previous year the "War of the Austrian Succession" had broken out on the Continent. The Emperor, Charles the Sixth, was the last male of his house, and he left his great dominions—Austria, Hungary, Bohemia, the Austrian Netherlands, Milan, and Parma in Italy—to his daughter Maria Theresa. He had persuaded the Powers to agree to this arrangement, but no sooner was he dead than a strong combination arose to overthrow the seemingly weak and defenceless woman who was her father's heir. The attack on her was led by Frederick the Second, the young King of Prussia, and by Charles Albert, Elector of Bavaria, each of whom claimed a part of the Austrian dominions. Frederick was a most ambitious man, with the best disciplined army in Europe at his back. In 1741, without troubling to declare war, he flung this army on the Austrian province of Silesia and captured it.

5. The Powers now began to take sides in the quarrel. France and Spain, eager for a share of the spoil, threw in their lot with the Elector of Bavaria, and the Austrian dominions were attacked at so many points and by so many foes that Maria Theresa was in a most desperate plight.



BATTLE OF FONTENOY.

(From the picture by Felix Philippoteaux in the Victoria and Albert Museum.)

This battle, fought on May 11, 1745, at the Belgian village of Fontenoy, five miles south-east of Tournay, was one of the most important battles in the war of the Austrian Succession. The French, under Marshal Saxe, were opposed by a smaller allied army consisting of British, Dutch, and Austrians. The nominal commander-in-chief was George, Duke of Cumberland, but he had practically no authority over his Dutch and Austrian colleagues. Marshal Saxe was in a strongly entrenched position, and several direct attacks failed. At last Cumberland formed most of his British and Hanoverian troops into a single heavy column, 14,000 strong, and advanced. A terrible cannonade was directed against him, and he was assailed on the flank by the Irish Brigade. The Dutch did not support him, and he was forced to retire, leaving four thousand dead behind him. There was no flight, but a steady and masterly retreat.

George the Second was anxious for the safety of his dearly-beloved Hanover, and Britain was alarmed at the prospect of an increase of French power, especially at the expense of our old ally Austria. In 1742 the British Parliament voted Maria Theresa a large sum of money, and the next year sent an Anglo-Hanoverian army into Flanders to support her cause.

6. George the Second, whatever his faults, was a brave man and a fearless soldier, and he now took command of the army in person. He moved along the right bank of the river Main to attack the flank of the French army which was invading Austria, but found himself so beset by the superior number of his foes that he was forced to retreat. The French commander, on the opposite bank of the river, outmarched the British king, and seized the entrance to a narrow valley through which the British army was forced to pass. George saw that his only hope of safety lay in an attempt to cut his way through the ranks of the enemy. At the head of his men he led a rapid rush of foot-soldiers, who at the point of the bayonet drove the French into the Main with great loss, and thus secured a desperate victory. The battle, which was fought on June 27, 1743, is known as Dettingen, from the name of a neighbouring village. It was the last battle in which a British king was under fire.

7. Soon afterwards the French invaded the Austrian Netherlands, and a British force was sent to co-operate with the Dutch against them. The Dutch general quarrelled with George, Duke of Cumberland, younger son of George the Second; and when the enemy was faced at Fontenoy, in the

neighbourhood of Malplaquet, the scene of Marlborough's great victory, the brunt of the fighting fell on the British and Hanoverian troops. The British made a magnificent advance under a tremendous fire, but they were compelled to retreat. The victory was largely due to the "Irish Brigade" of the French army. Cumberland brought off his army in comparative safety, for the enemy was too severely handled to pursue him in force.

8. Britain's embarrassment abroad was the Jacobite opportunity. Three months after the guns of Fontenoy had ceased to thunder, the "Young Pretender," Charles Edward, grandson of James the Second, was in Scotland rousing the clans to that romantic "forlorn hope" in which the Highlanders, by their gallantry and devotion, earned an undying fame.

9. "Bonnie Prince Charlie," gay, light-hearted, active, robust, and adventurous, was a strange contrast to his father, who had led the dismal failure of 1715. From his boyhood he had dreamed of winning back the throne of his fathers, and had pined for the hour when he should set foot on British soil. In 1744 the French king invited him to accompany a French fleet which was to invade the country; but the wind and waves, never kindly to the Stuarts, drove it back. Weary of waiting for French assistance, he now determined to stake his all on a desperate adventure.

10. With a little privateer, fifteen hundred muskets, twenty small cannon, eighteen hundred swords, some barrels of gunpowder, and a fast brig called the *Doutelle*, he set sail on July 13, 1745. A fight with a British ship drove the privateer back to harbour; but the *Doutelle*, with Charles



A Royal Fugitive.
(From the picture by Allan Stewart. Exhibited in the Royal Academy, 1907.)

on board, sailed on, and arrived off the islet of Eriskay between Barra and South Uist.

11. So slender were the chances of success that at first the Highland chiefs refused to assist him. One by one, however, carried away by the earnestness and charm of the young prince, they agreed to draw the sword in his cause, and on the nineteenth of August the clans met at Glenfinnan, where a monument now stands, and unfurled his banner of white, red, and blue silk to the breeze. Charles had soon two thousand devoted clansmen at his back, and was ready to march inland.

16. THE "'FORTY-FIVE."—II.

1. On the very day when the prince's banner was unfurled, Sir John Cope, the commander of the royal forces in Scotland, moved northward with three thousand men, mainly newly-raised recruits, for well-nigh the whole British army was overseas in Flanders. Cope, who was a thoroughly incompetent general, hoped to relieve the small bodies of troops stationed at Fort-William and Fort-Augustus. When, however, he reached the rocky steeps of Corry-Arrack leading to Fort-Augustus, he found the clansmen in possession of the pass. Turning aside, he marched towards Inverness, and thus left the southern road open.

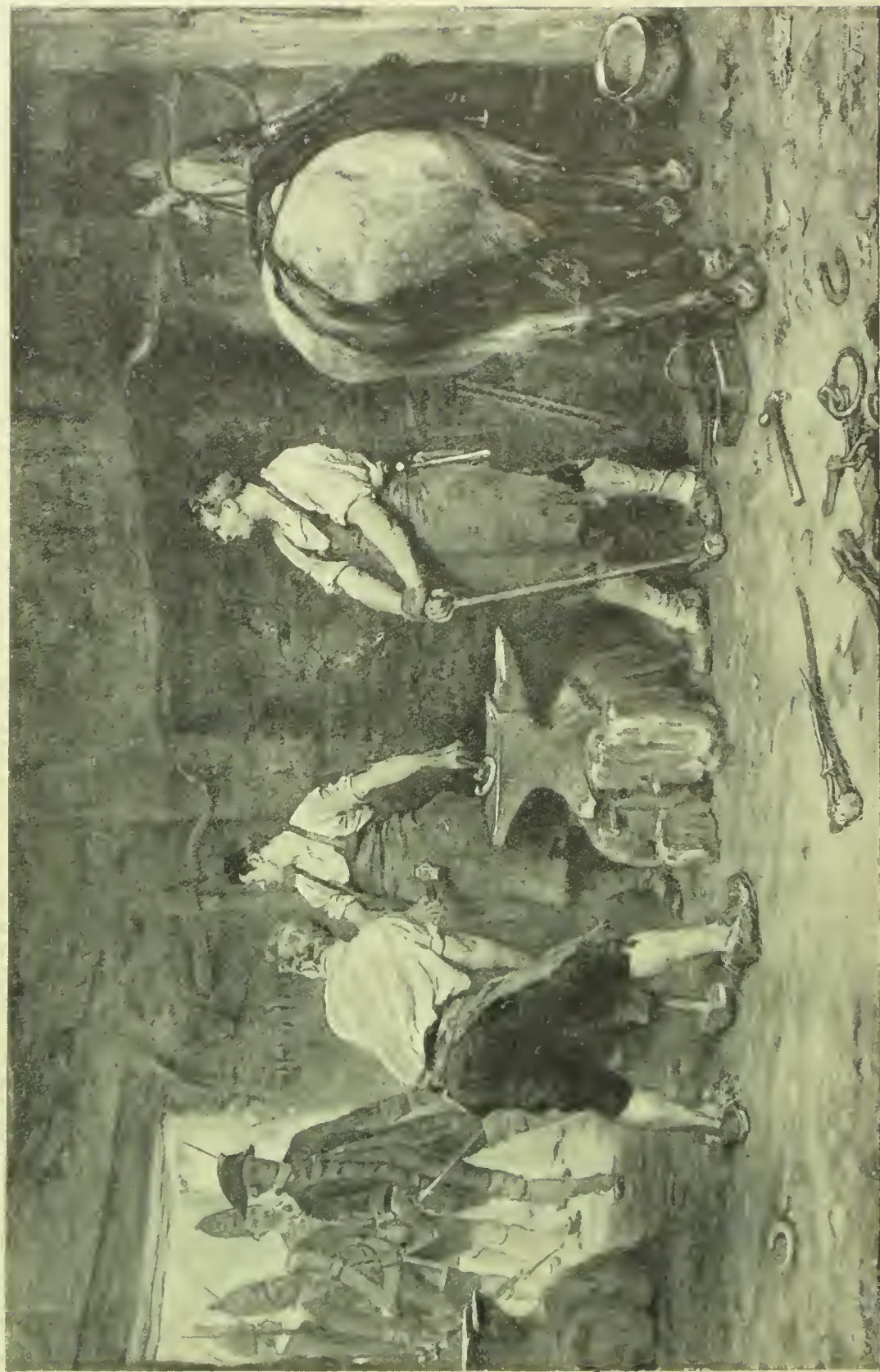
2. With banners flying, bagpipes skirling, and drums beating, the Highland host of kilted warriors pushed on towards Perth. The prince rode at their head, and every day he grew in favour with his followers. His frank, manly air and his gallant bearing completely won the hearts of the

quarrels broke out amongst the Highland leaders, and Charles was forced to retreat. The Highlanders, laden with booty, returned to their homes, and Charles pushed northward to Inverness, followed by the Duke of Cumberland with a strong force of royalist troops.

8. Now we reach the battlefield of Culloden, where our lesson began. When Cumberland was at Nairn, the Highlanders lay on the moor, weary and worn with their long toilsome march, and ill-prepared for battle. Lord George Murray proposed a night attack on the duke's army, and suggested the fifteenth of April as the most suitable date, because it was Cumberland's birthday, and sure to be an occasion for revelry in the English camp. Charles agreed to the proposal, and the march began; but so fatigued and hungry were the Highlanders that no less than fifty halts had to be called in eight miles. At two in the morning, the time fixed for the attack, the Highlanders were still four miles from the English camp. Cumberland's men had already roused themselves, and the Jacobite host had to retreat wearily to Culloden once more.

9. The final hour had come. Cumberland advanced with his ten thousand men, fresh, ardent, well fed, and well equipped, and the battle was decided before it was begun. At a distance of a third of a mile the English guns opened fire, making blood-red lanes through the Highlanders. They stood their ground for an hour, then charged and broke the first line, but the turning of their flank involved them in defeat. The cause of the Stuarts was lost for ever.

10. Then came the grim aftermath. "Butcher" Cumberland took such a cruel vengeance on the defeated foe that



AFTER CULLODEN : ROYALIST SOLDIERS SEARCHING FOR JACOBITE FUGITIVES.
(From the picture by John Seymour Lucas, R.A., in the Tate Gallery. By permission of Messrs. Frost and Reed.)

he well deserves his nickname. Several Scottish lords were beheaded, and measures were taken to prevent a similar rising in future. The tartan and kilt were forbidden articles of dress, the clan system was broken up, and military roads opened the Highlands to the rapid march of troops.

11. Meanwhile "Bonnie Prince Charlie" was a fugitive. For months he encountered hairbreadth escapes and countless perils by land and sea. His life was made up of days of hiding in the heather and nights of hunger, cold, fatigue, and anxiety in mountain caves. Yet by the magnificent loyalty of the Highlanders he escaped again and again, and at last found safety on board a French man-of-war at the very spot where he had landed fourteen months before.

12. The loyalty of the Highlanders to Prince Charlie is one of the proudest traditions of the race. Though £30,000 was the price set on his head, not one of the poor wretched clansmen ever dreamed of betraying him. As a memorial of his gallant attempt to win the throne of his fathers, we have those spirited and tender Jacobite songs which have become an imperishable part of our literature.

13. The later years of "Bonnie Prince Charlie" were marked by misery and degradation. The Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, which ended the war in October 1748, flung him homeless upon Europe. Neither France nor Spain would give him shelter. For many years he moved about like a cloud, probably finding his way more than once to England. Giving way to drink, he sank deeper and deeper into the mire. Alas ! that a youth of such winning gifts and bright hopes should have found a drunkard's grave. He died in January 1788.

17. CLIVE, "THE DARING IN WAR."—I.

1. To-day we are to visit Market Drayton, a quiet little country town of Shropshire. There is not much in the place to attract our special attention, except the fine old Gothic Church of St. Mary, and the grammar school, which was founded as far back as the reign of Queen Mary. Let us make our way to the church and look up at the lofty tower. Some time in the year 1736 most of the inhabitants of the town were engaged in a similar occupation. They were gazing up at this tower with open mouths and staring eyes, expecting every moment to see an accident take place. A small boy of eleven years of age was sitting astride one of the sandstone dragons which form the gargoyles of the tower. With sinking hearts and many a gasp of terror they saw the daring lad perched at that dizzy height waving his cap in wild glee. No doubt many mothers and fathers in the town prophesied the gallows as a suitable end for the audacious young rascal who had thus set their hearts fluttering.

2. He was well known in the town, this idle young scapegrace. At the grammar school "Bob Clive" was the leader of all the mischief. In the schoolroom he was the dunce of his class; in the playground he was unchallenged leader. In the village he and his friends played havoc with the tradesmen's windows. Fighting was his great delight, and he was ready to use his fists on the slightest provocation. He had won, and deserved to win, the character of a thoroughly naughty boy. What was to become of him? Little did his friends and relatives dream

that he was to become one of the greatest heroes of history, and the founder of our vast Indian Empire.

3. Robert Clive, the boy to whom we have thus been introduced, was born at Styche, near Market Drayton, in the year 1725. He was the eldest of thirteen children, and, as you have already learned, was remarkable for his pugnacity, his undaunted courage, and his love of mischief. When he was eighteen his parents, almost at their wits' end to know what to do with him, gladly accepted the offer of a clerkship in the service of the East India Company, and shipped the scapegrace off to India.

4. The East India Company, in whose service he now was, had been established as far back as the days of Queen Elizabeth. It was founded for trade, and it had attended closely to business. Its territory in India consisted of a few square miles of land, for which rent was paid to native rajas. Its troops were scarcely sufficient to man the four or five ill-constructed forts which had been erected at Madras, Bombay, Calcutta, and a few other places, to protect the warehouses. Most of the soldiers in the service of the Company were natives, and were neither furnished with European weapons nor disciplined according to European methods. The white servants of the Company were simply traders, whose business it was to make advances to manufacturers, ship cargoes, and in other ways advance the business interests of their employers. Most of the younger clerks were miserably paid, while the elder ones enriched themselves by trading on their own account.

5. A French East India Company had also been founded, but at the outset it met with much less success than the

corresponding English Company. At the close of the seventeenth century it possessed little more than the small town of Pondicherry, which still remains in the hands of the French. At this time the Moguls, the descendants of the Mohammedan conquerors of Northern India, dominated the land; but a few years later their power fell to pieces, and India was splintered into little independent kingdoms. The land was given over to civil war; every nawab or governor quarrelled and fought with his neighbours. The feebleness of the rulers and the disturbed state of the country positively invited the European traders of both nations to conquest. Hitherto they had been merely competitors for commerce; soon they were to become rivals for dominion.

6. Now let us return to Clive. He was very homesick and depressed during the long voyage round the Cape, and when he arrived in India he had spent all his money and contracted some debts. He was stationed at Fort St. George, Madras, where he was wretchedly lodged and badly paid, and engaged in duties ill-suited to his daring, ardent nature. On more than one occasion he got into scrapes and received reprimands. He attempted suicide, but twice the pistol which he snapped at his own head failed to go off. "It appears I am destined for something," he said, and his prophecy proved true. In the year of his arrival in India war was declared by Britain against France, and the struggle in Europe led to the long fight for supremacy in India.

7. Dupleix, the French Governor of Pondicherry, was a man of great ambition, and he now conceived the idea of

founding a great French Empire in India. Himself an able soldier, he made two most important discoveries. First, he observed that the native armies could not stand against men disciplined in the European fashion; and, secondly, he perceived that the natives could be brought under European discipline by European officers. Forthwith he began to enlist Sepoys or native soldiers, and to arm and discipline them after the French manner. With these Sepoys he intended to intervene in the disputes of the native rulers, and by taking first this side and then that, gradually win India for France.

8. A French expedition appeared before Madras, captured Fort St. George, and seized the contents of the warehouses as prize of war. Some of the servants of the British Company, including Clive, were paraded through the streets of Pondicherry in triumphal procession, and treated with great indignity. Clive, in the disguise of a Mohammedan, managed to escape from the town by night and make his way to Fort St. David, a small British settlement in Madras. Here he begged to be allowed to throw down his pen and take up the sword. His request was granted, and as an ensign at the age of twenty-one he entered upon his military career.

9. He took part in Admiral Boscawen's unsuccessful siege of Pondicherry, where he distinguished himself by his bravery, and in his twenty-fifth year was promoted to be a captain. Shortly after the failure at Pondicherry the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, of which you read in the last lesson, was signed. Nevertheless, there was but a short interval of peace in India; for though Britain and France were supposed to have sheathed the sword, a great struggle for power

was about to begin both in India and in America. Before long there was open war, which at first went greatly in favour of France.

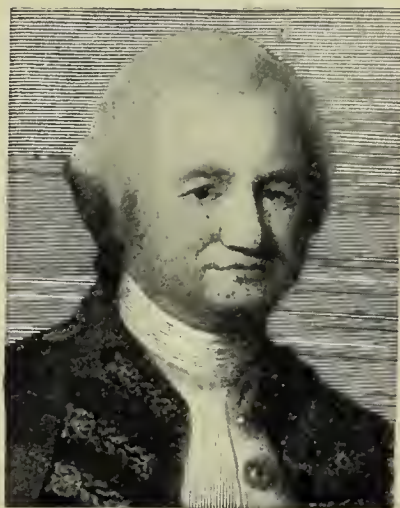
10. Dupleix, continuing his rapid and brilliant career, had intervened in the affairs of the two great native states of Hyderabad and the Carnatic, and had managed to get his own candidates placed on the thrones of both these states. Thus he was practically master of South India. Civil war, however, continued in the Carnatic, where the French nominee was besieging Trichinopoly, the last stronghold of his rival. Trichinopoly was about to fall, and its fall would mean the complete supremacy of the French in India. At this critical moment Clive persuaded the Governor of Madras to entrust him with a small force of three hundred Sepoys, armed and disciplined after the European fashion, and with them he marched to attack Arcot, the capital of the nawab whom Dupleix was supporting. By doing this he hoped to draw off the nawab's forces from the siege of Trichinopoly.

18. CLIVE, "THE DARING IN WAR."—II.

1. Clive marched his men through a violent thunder-storm, and attacked Arcot with such vigour that the garrison fled in panic, leaving the citadel in his hands without striking a blow. Then Clive in his turn was besieged by the native allies of France for eleven long weeks. He held out, though the place was ill-adapted to stand a siege, and his men were all but starved. At last, after a desperate attack, in which elephants were used to batter down the gates, the

besiegers were driven back, and Clive had achieved the first of his successes. Within the next three years he was to establish British supremacy in India.

2. Clive proved himself a born leader of men. He gained such a complete hold over his Sepoys that they followed him in the most desperate of enterprises. When they discovered, during the siege of Arcot, that all the provisions were exhausted except a little rice, they begged him and his fellow-officers to take the rice and leave them the water in which it had been boiled. His fearless courage gained him the native name of Sabat Jung, "the daring in war." His renown speedily spread throughout India, and before long his marvellous energy and skill had completely undone the work of Dupleix.



CLIVE.

*(From the picture in the
National Portrait Gallery.)*

3. In 1753, worn out by anxiety and fatigue, Clive returned to England. He had gone out ten years before a friendless, wayward boy; he now returned, at the age of twenty-eight, to find himself renowned as one of Britain's most famous soldiers. Naturally, his father and the other members of his family were overjoyed to learn that naughty, idle Bobby had developed into a great man. With his prize-money Clive helped to pay off some of his father's debts and to redeem the family estate.

4. Now we must turn from the fortunes of Clive to watch the progress of affairs in Europe. At home a new star was rapidly rising in the political firmament. This

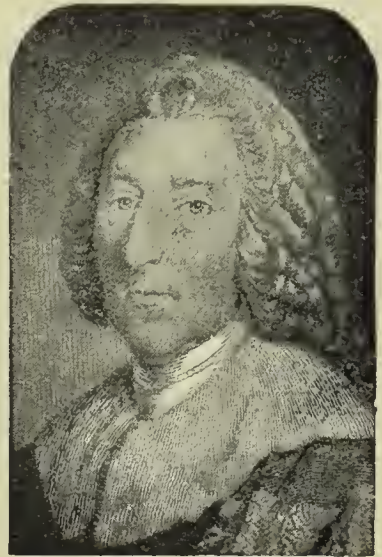
was William Pitt, afterwards the Earl of Chatham, a man of great ability and an orator of commanding power, who desired to make Britain supreme among the nations. He was the very opposite of Walpole, whom he had bitterly opposed. Walpole was, as you know, the firm friend of peace and trade; Pitt was all for military glory.

5. When Walpole fell, Pitt was not included in the Government, owing to the strong dislike which George the Second entertained towards him. In the year 1746 the ministers resigned, chiefly because they were not permitted to add Pitt to their number. The king was obliged to give way, and Pitt entered the Ministry, though in a minor post. He was dismissed in 1755, but returned to office in the next year, only to be again dismissed six months later. Nevertheless, his popularity was so great that the king was obliged to recall him. Though not yet Prime Minister, he was the real head of the Ministry, and by far the greatest man in it.

6. Now in the year 1756 a great European war, known as the "Seven Years' War," broke out. You remember that the ambitious Frederick, King of Prussia, had conquered Silesia during the War of the Austrian Succession. Maria Theresa was resolved not to give up Silesia without a struggle. She succeeded in persuading France, Russia, and Poland to help her; while Britain, abandoning her cause, formed an alliance with Prussia, and fought against her. At first the war went against us, and disaster followed disaster. A British fleet fought an indecisive action off Minorca and withdrew, Byng, its admiral, being shot on his own quarter-deck, "to encourage the others," as a witty Frenchman

observed. Frederick was beaten, and Cumberland, at Klosterseven, was forced to make a disgraceful surrender.

7. At this juncture (July, 1757) Pitt became responsible for the conduct of the war. "I am sure," he said, "that I can save this country, and that nobody else can;" and his boast was no idle one. A new and brilliant era now opened for British arms. Pitt was the first British statesman who set himself in real earnest to extend the British possessions beyond the seas. His policy was to keep France busily employed in European warfare, while he tore from her grasp her great dominions in India and America. He paid Frederick large sums to enable him to oppose the French on European battlefields, while British forces operated on and beyond the seas. "I am conquering Canada," he said, "on the plains of Germany." He conducted the war with such energy and resolution, chose his commanders so well, and inspired them with so much of his own burning patriotism, that everywhere defeat was turned into victory. "Nobody entered his room," said one of his commanders, "who did not leave it a braver man."



CHATHAM.

*(From the picture in the
National Portrait Gallery.)*

8. With the progress of the war in America we shall deal in the next lesson. Here we must return to Clive, who had only just arrived in India in 1756, after his visit to England, when terrible news was brought to him. Suraj-

ud-Dowlah, the Nawab of Bengal, had, in his absence, attacked the British settlement at Calcutta and seized one hundred and forty-six persons.

9. These he thrust into the "Black Hole," a room measuring only eighteen feet by fourteen, and locked them up for the night. They had no air, save from two narrow, barred windows, and in the stifling heat of a Bengal June most of the prisoners perished. When the awful night had passed and the doors were opened, only twenty-three of the poor creatures staggered out alive. Clive hastened to Bengal to punish the nawab for this awful outrage.

10. He had nine hundred Europeans and fifteen hundred Sepoys with him to oppose Suraj-ud-Dowlah's great army. After a short, sharp fight, the enemy fled in utter confusion, leaving baggage, guns, and cattle in the hands of the victors. This battle of Plassey, fought on June 23, 1757, secured Bengal, the richest province of India, for the British. After the battle, the East India Company continued its conquests. It completely crushed the power of the French, and under later governors gained dominion over practically the whole of India.



19. JAMES WOLFE, "MAKER OF EMPIRE."—I.

1. To-day we will charter one of the air-ships of the future and speed away westward over the rolling Atlantic for two thousand six hundred miles. We flash over the misty island of Newfoundland, and ere long find ourselves sailing above the broad estuary of a noble river which gives access

to the heart of the North American continent. With the slowly-narrowing river as our guide, we continue our journey for some five hundred miles, until we see below us the quaint roofs of an old-world city straggling up the slope and crowning the summit of a lofty cliff. We are now rapidly descending on Quebec, the mother-city of our great Dominion of Canada.

2. What a wonderful Dominion it is! It occupies nearly half of the North American continent, and boasts an area equal to one-third of the whole British Empire. It is nearly as large as the whole of Europe; it could easily contain the whole of Australia, and might be carved into thirty United Kingdoms. It has thousands of miles of forest, where some of the finest trees in the world are to be found; thousands of miles of rich wheat land, yielding a very large number of bushels to the acre; and thousands of miles of pasture land, where millions of cattle grow fat on the sweet grasses. Nor is this all: Canada is as rich below ground as she is above, and from petroleum to iron, from nickel to gold, there is hardly a mineral which she does not produce in abundance. Such is the Dominion of Canada, "eldest daughter of the Empire."

3. Now let us examine at closer quarters the mother-city of this great Dominion. From our air-ship we perceive that it stands on what we may call the nose of a rocky peninsula shaped like a bull's head and facing eastward. Nature evidently intended this peninsula for a great fortress. On the south and the east side it rises by steep cliffs to its rocky summit; on south and east and north it is defended by rivers. To the south flows the great St. Lawrence River.



VIEWS IN QUEBEC.

1. Dufferin Terrace. 2. The Citadel and Château Frontenac. 3. Plains of Abraham, and Wolfe Monument. 4. Sous-le-Cap Street. 5. Montmorency Falls. 6. Church of Notre-Dame des Victoires. 7. Parliament Buildings. 8. French Cathedral.

which expands on the east into a broad basin, upon which the navies of the world might ride; while on the north the peninsula is protected by the estuary of the river St. Charles.

4. Now let us descend. We come to earth on Dufferin Terrace, a broad promenade two hundred feet above the waters of the great river. Here is the Hotel Frontenac, built after the fashion of an old French château. Behind it rises the grim and frowning citadel, on which the Union Jack proudly waves.

5. We climb to the fortress, and gaze in admiration on the scene which unfolds itself. Below us and around us is the town. The lower town, with its steep streets, its old gabled houses, its public buildings and numerous churches with their tin-covered cupolas and minarets, rises sharply from the water's edge. Opposite to us, on the other side of the river, is Point Levis, and to its east is the beautiful Isle of Orleans. On our left, across the Basin, is the Montmorency River, which hurls itself over a precipice to mingle its waters with those of the great river.

6. To our right extend the famous Plains of Abraham, part of which is now a national park. We leave our coign of vantage, and, walking on to the Plains, call a halt before a tall monument, on which we read this simple inscription: "Here died Wolfe victorious." Who was Wolfe, and what victory did he lose his life in winning?

7. In the last lesson you learned that the Seven Years' War was fought out mainly, as far as Britain was concerned, in India and America. I told you in Book V. that both France and England had begun colonizing in the New World early in the seventeenth century. By the middle

of the eighteenth century the position in North America was as follows : The British had established themselves in thirteen colonies along the Atlantic coast from Florida to Nova Scotia ; the French had chosen Quebec as their capital, and had occupied Acadia, now the provinces of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, and the valley of the St. Lawrence from the Atlantic Ocean to the great lakes. A New England and a New France had thus grown up in the New World.

8. New England grew rapidly in population and wealth. New France also prospered, but in a lesser degree. Its progress was hindered by constant warfare with the Indians, by the trading enterprise of the British, and by the interference of the home Government. The two white races constantly advanced their frontiers, and their outposts drew nearer and nearer to each other every year. Border strife between the rival nations soon became frequent. In 1690, for example, the British settlers invaded New France, to revenge themselves for the plunder of certain frontier stations. The invaders were driven back, but for years afterwards the French and the British kept up an irregular warfare. During the War of the Spanish Succession a powerful British fleet, which was protecting the colonies, seized that part of Acadia now known as Nova Scotia.

9. Though Britain had colonized the whole Atlantic seaboard from Florida to Nova Scotia, her territories had not advanced inland beyond the great barrier of the Alleghany Mountains. France, in addition to Canada, possessed the colony of Louisiana at the mouth of the Mississippi. She claimed that Louisiana stretched to the head-waters of the Mississippi and its tributary, the Ohio.

Had this claim been allowed, the British seaboard colonies would have been shut in on the west, and prevented from extending to the rich plains of the interior. Already the British needed elbow-room, for they numbered some two millions; while the French, in all the vast territory which they claimed, could only muster one hundred and eighty thousand.

10. The French now proposed to link Louisiana with Canada by a chain of forts along the Mississippi and the Ohio. The three northern links in the proposed chain were Fort Ticonderoga at the end of Lake Champlain, Fort Niagara near the great falls, and Fort Duquesne* on the Ohio River, where the great manufacturing town of Pittsburgh now stands. The first and the last of these forts were close to the English back settlements. In 1754, while Britain was ringing with the fame of Clive fresh from his great defence of Arcot, a party of Virginian militia attacked the Ohio outposts under George Washington, soon to be the greatest name in American history. The attack, however, was unsuccessful. This was the beginning of the great struggle between the French and the British for the possession of North America.

11. Next year General Braddock, who had been sent to be commander-in-chief in America, marched against the French, at the head of two thousand two hundred British regulars and American settlers. He cut his way through the almost impenetrable forest, but when eight miles from the fort fell into an ambushade. The Indians and French were hidden in bushes and behind trees, and they poured volley after volley into the British ranks.

* Pronounced *doo-kān'*.

12. The settlers wished to fight in the Indian fashion and take cover behind the trees ; but Braddock thought this cowardly, and so they fought in the open until so many were killed that a retreat had to be ordered. Soon the retreat became a flight, and but for Washington and his



JAMES WOLFE.

(From the picture in the National Portrait Gallery.)

Virginians, Braddock's little army would probably have been killed to a man. The consequences of this defeat were terrible. The French let loose the Indians on the outlying British settlements, and the woods rang with the screams of tortured victims. For a time France was supreme on the North American continent.

13. In the winter of 1758 Pitt sketched out a bold plan of campaign in America. Simultaneous attacks were to be made on Fort Ticonderoga and Fort Niagara, and on Quebec, the key of New France. Pitt looked around for a man after his own heart to conduct the great campaign. He found him in James Wolfe, who died victorious on the Plains of Abraham.



20. JAMES WOLFE, "MAKER OF EMPIRE."—II.

1. James Wolfe was a soldier born and bred, yet something better and higher than a mere soldier—a hero and a gentleman. His father had commanded troops with distinction ; and at fifteen years of age, as a delicate, tall,

blue-eyed lad, the future hero of Quebec carried the colours in one of his Majesty's regiments. From the beginning of his military career Wolfe set himself to study the art of war, and at sixteen was appointed adjutant of his regiment, then serving in Flanders.

2. At twenty-one he had seen seven campaigns, and was a major. He had been present at the victories of Dettingen and Culloden, and it is said that on the latter battlefield he proved the nobility of his nature by refusing to shoot a wounded Highlander when ordered to do so by "Butcher" Cumberland. It is also said that he recommended the enlistment of the Highlanders as soldiers in the British army. This may or may not be true, but it is certain that the Highland regiments first began to win their great renown under his command.

3. At thirty years of age he had acquired the reputation of a capable, active, zealous officer, but so far he had given no indication of the great fame which was soon to be his. In 1758 he accompanied General Amherst as brigadier of an expedition sent against the fortress of Louisburg in Acadia. Louisburg surrendered, and Wolfe played such a distinguished part in its capture that Pitt chose him to command the new expedition against Quebec. Wolfe jumped at the chance. "Mr. Pitt," he said, "may dispose of my slight carcass as he pleases." The Duke of Newcastle, who was then Prime Minister, was shocked at Pitt's choice. He told the king that Wolfe was mad. "Mad, is he?" said George; "then I hope he will bite some others of my generals."

4. On February 17, 1759, Wolfe sailed for Canada

with a large fleet and nine thousand troops. During the voyage he suffered tortures from sea-sickness. In May he was at Louisburg, and on the sixteenth of June he weighed anchor for Quebec, the troops cheering and the officers drinking this toast, "British colours on every French fort, port, and garrison in America." His errand was known in Quebec, and levies of settlers and Indians were hastily collected.

5. Montcalm, the gallant Frenchman who was Governor of New France, hastened to make Quebec, already strong by nature, stronger still by art. Redoubts, batteries, and lines of entrenchment were thrown up along the lofty, curving shore from the St. Charles River to the Montmorency, and a boom of logs, and hulks mounted with cannon, barricaded the former river. Fourteen thousand men lined the earthworks, and one or two thousand more manned the guns of the fortress. When Wolfe arrived on the twenty-first of June, Quebec was well-nigh impregnable.

6. Wolfe landed his men on the Isle of Orleans, and soon realized the desperate character of the task which he had undertaken. Quebec seemed impossible of attack. The cliffs to his left were edged with palisades and capped with redoubts, while on his right was a far-extended line of entrenchments ending in the foaming cataract of Montmorency. There seemed to be no chink in the wall of defence. For weeks Wolfe lay inactive, wearing himself to a shadow in the attempt to find a weak spot against which he might hurl his army.

7. He seized Point Levis, and from it bombarded Quebec, only one mile away. Fierce as his fire was, it did nothing

to help him in capturing the city. At length, tired of inactivity, he attempted, on the thirty-first of July, to gain a footing on the north shore of the St. Lawrence by landing his men below the Montmorency Fall and climbing to the plateau above. In this he was successful; but though his guns now played on the flank of Montcalm's entrenchments, the city of his desire was as far off as ever. "You may demolish the town," said the bearer of a flag of truce, "but



you shall never get inside it." "I will have Quebec if I stay here till November," was Wolfe's reply.

8. A frontal attack on the Beauport heights, at the spot marked Beauport shoals on the accompanying plan, was a complete failure, and Wolfe lost more than two hundred men. He was now worn to a shadow, and he lay dangerously ill. He felt his failure deeply, especially as news now arrived that the attacks on Ticonderoga and Niagara had been successful. Meanwhile the British fleet had accomplished a great feat. Despite a furious cannonade from the

guns of Quebec, ship after ship had managed to sail up the river past the forts, and were now able to threaten the city from a position which the French had thought to be quite safe from attack.

9. On the twentieth of August the young general was about again, and was diligently searching the steep, rocky shore above Quebec for a possible landing-place. At last he discovered, three miles from Quebec, what is now called Wolfe's Cove. From this a goat-track wound up the wooded precipice for two hundred and fifty feet above the St. Lawrence. A French guard was stationed at the top, but Wolfe thought it could easily be surprised and captured. He was now resolved to lead his men up this steep track and make a last despairing attempt to capture the city. With four thousand men he determined to climb the Heights of Abraham and meet Montcalm's army at the very gates of Quebec.

10. Now let us pass on to the night of September 12, 1759. Under cover of the darkness, the British flotilla of boats moved silently towards the landing-place. Wolfe, who was in the leading boat, began in a low whisper to recite the beautiful lines of Gray's "Elegy." When he reached the end of the verse which concludes with the words, "The paths of glory lead but to the grave," he said, "Now, gentlemen, I would rather have written those lines than take Quebec."

11. Presently they were challenged from the heights above; but the sentry was satisfied, and the boats passed on. As they reached the tiny cove at the foot of the crags the men silently disembarked, and scrambled up the wooded

precipice on their hands and knees. The French guard at the top was captured, and before the day dawned Wolfe had marshalled his four thousand men on the Heights of Abraham. When they became visible, Montcalm was alarmed for the safety of Quebec. To save the citadel, he



THE CAPTURE OF QUEBEC.

(From a contemporary print.)

was forced to come out of his entrenchments and fight in the open.

12. The French advanced, firing rapidly ; but the British stood firm, and reserved their fire until the enemy was within close range. Then a fearful hail of bullets sped from the British muskets. The French wavered, and as the British reloaded and advanced they turned and fled. Wolfe was struck down in the hour of victory. He lived long

enough to hear that the enemy were in flight. "Now, God be praised," he said; "I die happy." Wolfe was dead, and in the same hour his gallant foe Montcalm received a fatal wound. A monument to the joint memory of two leaders who in death were not divided now stands in the public gardens of Quebec.

13. On September 18, 1759, the British flag was hoisted on the citadel of Quebec. At home the news was received with rapturous joy. "The whole nation rose up," says Thackeray, "and felt itself the stronger for Wolfe's victory." The scattered remnants of the French fell back on Montreal. In the next autumn they were surrounded and forced to lay down their arms. The victory of the British was complete. So little did the French realize the value of Canada, that Lewis the Fifteenth consoled himself with the remark, "After all, it is only a few acres of snow."

14. The city which Wolfe captured is still the centre of the French-speaking province of Quebec. On his deathbed Montcalm wrote to the British commander beseeching him to show mercy to the townsfolk. "Do not," he wrote, "let them perceive that they have changed masters. Be their protector, as I have been their father." It is to Britain's honour that with scrupulous care she has observed this dying request of a great and good man. The French Canadian of to-day would be the first to say that under the Union Jack he retains his faith and language, his old laws and cherished institutions, and that under British rule his liberty has been enlarged and his prosperity established.



BOSTON.

21. THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.—I.

1. To-day we will once more cross the Atlantic and pay a visit to Boston, which may be called the birthplace of the United States. It is *the* historic city of the great Republic. In and around it are most of the places closely associated with the striking events which led to the severance of the thirteen colonies from the mother-country, and their development into one of the greatest powers of the world. The city stands at the head of a fine island-studded harbour on the navigable river Charles, in the State of Massachusetts, and spreads out from its water-front over many square miles. It is the chief town of the New England states, the oldest of the large cities, the second port of the country, and the seat of its best education and culture.

2. Boston is old in a land where all is new. The streets in the oldest part of the town are narrow and crooked, and in this respect are in remarkable contrast with the streets of other American cities, which are laid out as regularly as a

draught-board. Modern Americans poke good-natured fun at Boston's irregular streets, which they say were laid out by the cows coming home from pasture. Several public buildings, now the object of pious care, date from the days when the Union Jack flew above the city. In its harbour the first important revolt against British authority took place; two lanterns hung out on the tower of the old North Church apprised the inhabitants of the arrival of a British fleet laden with red-coats; in its Old State House the first steps were taken which organized the revolution; and a monument on Bunker Hill, in the suburb of Charlestown, commemorates the first battle of the war. No place could suit us better as a starting-point for our lesson to-day.

3. You already know that George the Second died in October 1760, and was succeeded by his grandson, George the Third. The new king had been taught by his mother to aim at being the master of his ministers and not their servant, as his two immediate predecessors had been. "George, *be king*," she cried constantly, and her lesson was well learned by the young sovereign. He was a simple, pious, industrious, good-natured man; but he was terribly obstinate, and could not be persuaded to change his opinions.

4. Everybody applauded him when he made the famous speech: "Born and educated in this country, I glory in the name of Briton; and the peculiar happiness of my life will ever consist in promoting the welfare of a people whose loyalty and warm affection to me I consider as the greatest and most permanent security of my throne." He began by being popular, and he never lost the affection of his people. At first his friend and adviser was a Scottish

nobleman, named Lord Bute, who had gained a great ascendancy over him. George insisted on pitchforking Bute into the Ministry in the hope of driving Pitt, whom he disliked, out of it. Bute strongly advocated peace with France at a time when Pitt knew that our old enemy was making a new alliance with Spain for the purpose of depriving us of our sea-power. Pitt advised instant war with Spain, but Bute opposed him so strongly that Pitt resigned, to the king's great delight.

5. The Peace of Paris was made, but it was not very popular in England. Men said, with justice, that Pitt could have got better terms, and that he would have given back nothing to either France or Spain. Our gains, however, were very considerable; but our victories had been so brilliant that the nation was not satisfied. Bute became very unpopular, and the "*jack-boot*," his punning effigy, was constantly burned by the mob. In November 1763 he resigned, and the king chose the Whig leaders, George Grenville and the Duke of Bedford, to succeed him. It was during this Ministry that the prosecution of Wilkes for seditious libel took place. Grenville was a narrow-minded man, who knew of "no national interests except those which are expressed by pounds, shillings, and pence." He had already shown his unwisdom by prosecuting Wilkes; he was soon to plunge the country into the most disastrous dispute in which it had ever been engaged.

6. Grenville believed, as most statesmen did at the time, that colonies were merely estates which the mother-country held across the seas. These estates were simply regarded as milch-cows for the people of Britain; consequently all

sorts of restrictions were placed by the home Government on their trading enterprises. The colonists were supposed to buy all, or nearly all, their manufactured goods and their tea from this country, which took in return only a small amount of their lumber, tobacco, and other raw produce. The consequence was that the colonists always owed large

sums of money to Britain.

7. This balance they had to make up from time to time by money payments, which they could only procure by breaking the law and trading with the West India Islands and the Spanish colonies. This illicit trade was carried on openly, and no colonist believed it to be morally wrong. A wise minister would not have meddled in the matter at all; but Grenville was not wise, and he could see no dif-



OLD STATE HOUSE, BOSTON.

ference between the illicit trade of the colonists and the smuggling which was carried on at home. Consequently he determined to put it down, and in doing so he dealt a crushing blow to American trade. Naturally this was a great grievance, and a loud outcry arose from the colonists.

8. They had a still greater grievance. The Seven Years' War had entailed a heavy burden of expense upon the

British Government as well as upon the colonists. The National Debt was greatly increased, and there were many men in England who thought that the colonies, in simple justice, ought to share in the burden of the war, especially as an armed force had now to be kept on the frontiers to cope with the Indians. Accordingly, in 1765, Grenville persuaded Parliament to revive the Sugar Act and pass a new Stamp Act. The Sugar Act hit New England specially hard, but the Stamp Act applied to all the colonies, and was the means of uniting them in opposition to the British Government. The Stamp Act required that every legal document, bill of lading, indenture, pamphlet, almanac, newspaper, and pack of cards must be written or printed on English paper bearing a stamp, and sold at prices fixed by law. The money raised by this tax was to be spent in America for the support of an army.



BUNKER HILL MONUMENT.

9. Never before had the British Parliament directly laid a tax on colonists for the purpose of raising revenue. When the king needed money, the Parliaments of the various colonies levied the taxes on their own authority, and handed over the money to the proper authorities. Now these local Parliaments were to be superseded, and the British Parlia-

ment was to tax the Americans without asking their yea or nay. They professed willingness to tax themselves for the purpose, but they strongly resisted taxation by a Parliament in which they had no representation.

10. Forthwith they sent their business agents to London to protest ; but Grenville could not be persuaded, and on March 22, 1765, the Stamp Act was passed. When the news reached America the greatest indignation was aroused. The Virginians broke out into the first note of defiance, declaring that one of their rights was that of being taxed by their own Assembly, and that they were not bound to obey any law taxing them without consent of their Assembly. The Stamp Act was reprinted in New York with a death's head on it in place of the royal arms, and was headed, "The Folly of England and the Ruin of America." In Boston the bells tolled and the flags flew at half-mast.

22. THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.—II.

1. To the great cry, "No taxation without representation," Grenville's friends on this side of the Atlantic replied that the Americans *were* represented in Parliament. The British people, it was argued, were represented in Parliament not as individuals but as classes. Thus the clergy were represented by the bishops and the nobility by the peers in the House of Lords, while the mass of the people were represented by the members of the House of Commons. It was also pointed out that the colonists were no worse off than large numbers of Britons at home. The number of

voters was very small, and great cities like Liverpool, Leeds, and Manchester had not a single member in the House of Commons.

2. Argument, however, was of no avail. The colonists banded themselves together as "Sons of Liberty," and frequent riots took place. Every scrap of stamped paper in the country was seized and burned, and the merchants agreed not to import any goods from Britain until the question was settled. The result was that the British manufacturers could sell no goods in America, and such a cry went up from them that Parliament had to take notice of their complaint. During the debate which followed, the great orator, Edmund Burke, made his maiden speech, and Pitt burst forth in memorable words: "I rejoice that America has resisted; three millions of people so dead to all the feelings of liberty as willingly to submit to be slaves would have been fit instruments to make slaves of the rest." The result was that the Stamp Act was repealed, though Parliament still declared that it had the right to tax the Americans if it so wished.

3. There was great rejoicing in America when the news crossed the ocean, but eighteen months had hardly passed away before the new Ministry, influenced by that brilliant but unwise statesman, Charles Townshend, made another attempt to tax the Americans. There is no doubt that the king, and Parliament in general, were angry at their defeat. Pitt, now Earl of Chatham, was a member of the Government, but he was so ill that he could not restrain Townshend. In May 1767 this minister punished the Parliament of New York because the people had mobbed the royal troops, and

then proceeded to a worse piece of folly—he passed an Act to tax glass, lead, painters' colours, paper, and tea. At once the anger of the colonists flamed up. Meetings were held everywhere, and the merchants again agreed not to import British goods.

4. In 1770 the troops intended for the defence of the colonists began to arrive, and the colonists received them as enemies. On the fifth of March some of the Boston townsfolk attacked the troops with sticks and snowballs. In the excitement the soldiers fired on the crowd, and some of the rioters were killed. So angry were the colonists at this "massacre," as they called it, that the soldiers had to be removed for safety to an island in the bay. On the very day of this riot the British Parliament repealed all the taxes except that on tea, which was only reserved so that it might assert its claim to tax the colonies.

5. The Americans, however, still held out. No tea was drunk except that which was smuggled from Holland, and at the end of three years the East India Company's warehouses were choked with tea which they could not sell to America. At last the British Government took off a British tea tax, which enabled the Company to send shiploads of tea to America, where it could now be sold at a lower price than the smuggled tea. The Americans, however, refused to receive the tea-ships. At Boston a band of young men, disguised as Indians, boarded a tea-ship, broke open the boxes, and made tea on a large scale by flinging it into the sea. This incident, which is known as the "Boston tea-party," made the home Government very angry, and it resolved to punish the people of Boston

for the outrage. Acts were passed closing the port and taking away from Massachusetts its right to govern itself.

6. This was the last straw which broke down the patience of the Americans. They armed and drilled, and the quarrel soon gave rise to war. The first blood was spilt at the village of Lexington (April 1775), where "the shot heard round the world" was fired. Within a month all New England was in arms. George Washington, a Virginian planter, of whom you have already heard, was appointed to lead the Americans; but before he reached Massachusetts the first battle had been fought.

7. At Bunker Hill the British, after a hard struggle, defeated the colonists; and then it was felt that the war must be fought out to the bitter end. Two weeks later Washington took command of the colonial army, which was in a miserable plight. His undaunted spirit and splendid patience, however, worked wonders. For eight months he kept the British cooped up in Boston while he trained and disciplined his army, and supplied himself with the munitions of war. In March 1776 he forced the British to retreat from Boston.

8. The British nation had now become as bitter and determined as the Americans, and though Chatham pleaded hard for reconciliation he was unsuccessful. The obstinate king had done his best to prevent peace by declaring the Americans rebels, by closing their ports, by warning foreign nations not to trade with them, and by hiring German soldiers to subdue them. On the fourth of July 1776 the Congress of the American States published its famous Declaration of Independence, by which it threw off



SIGNING THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE, JULY 4, 1776.
(From the picture by Trumbull.)

all connection with Britain, and formed the thirteen colonies into a republic.

9. In the war which followed it seemed at first as if all the advantage would be on the side of the British. The Americans, however, were fighting for their liberty; their country, though easy to enter, was so large that it was difficult to hold; the ocean lay between them and Britain; and lastly, they received help from abroad, which in the end turned the scale against the mother-country. During the first two years of the war the British won several battles and took New York and Philadelphia. Washington was almost driven to despair, and nothing but his wonderful patience and courage saved the Americans from utter defeat. His men were young and only half-disciplined, thousands of them had no shoes, and food and ammunition were scarce. In the darkest hour of his depression, however, he was cheered by the news that the British general, Burgoyne, had been forced to surrender at Saratoga by the militia of New York.

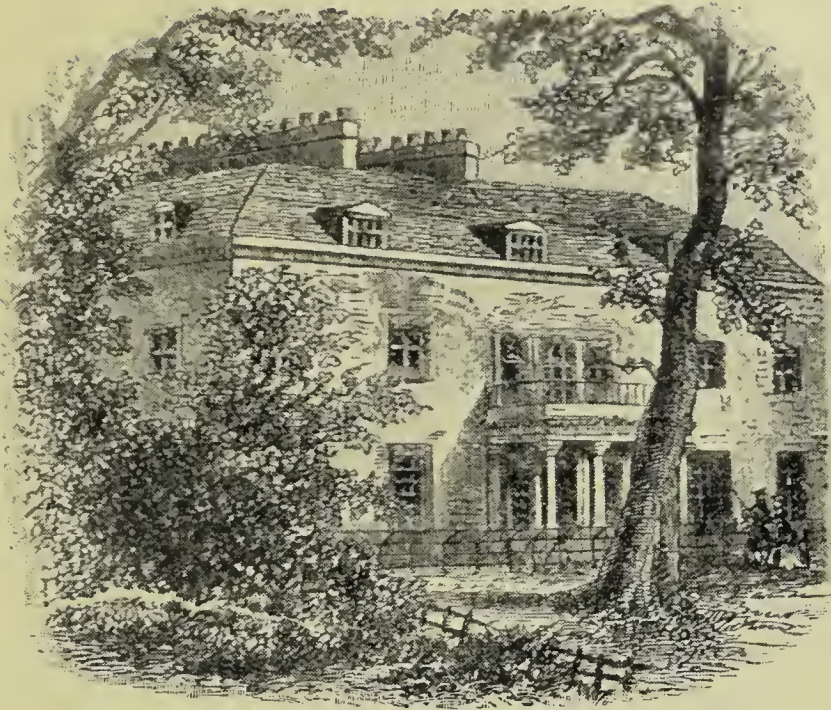
10. At home Chatham, swathed in flannel, went to the House of Lords, and in burning words urged the king to make peace with his subjects across the Atlantic. So far was he successful that the Government offered peace on any terms short of independence. At this juncture news arrived that France had thrown in her lot with the Americans, and that we had now two nations in arms against us. A proposal was made to make peace with both countries, but this Chatham opposed with his dying breath.

11. Too weak to stand without support, he was almost carried into the House of Lords, where, leaning on his

crutch, his eyes gleaming fire from his shrunken face, he cried, "Have we stooped so low as to tell our ancient enemy, Take all we have, only give us peace?" He besought the nation to make friends with its own flesh and blood, then turn and crush the French. A feeble reply was made, and a second time he rose, but before he could speak he was seen to gasp, to lay his hand upon his heart, and sink back unconscious. A few weeks later he died, and with him passed away all hope of making peace with America.

12. The war went on, and before long Britain stood alone against Europe. The Spaniards and the Dutch joined the Americans, and the league was too strong for Britain. In October 1781 Lord Cornwallis and his troops were surrounded at Yorktown. The British fleet was driven off the coast, and the British general was forced to surrender. When Lord North, the British Prime Minister, heard the terrible news he threw up his hands and said, "It is all over." So it was; all hope of retaining the American colonies had vanished, and on September 3, 1783, peace was signed at Paris. The colonists had triumphed, and the star of Britain's glory seemed to have set for ever.

13. From the thirteen British colonies which thus asserted their independence has sprung the United States of America, the giant power of the New World. No country at any time has ever advanced so rapidly towards wealth and greatness as the United States. One hundred years ago the States had three million inhabitants; to-day they extend over an area nearly as large as Europe, with a population of more than a hundred millions of English-speaking people.



HAYES PLACE, NEAR BROMLEY, KENT.

One of the windows of the bedroom in which Chatham died is shown on the right hand side of the engraving.

23. PITT THE YOUNGER.

1. Near to the town of Bromley, in the pleasant county of Kent, stands an old manor-house, known as Hayes Place. Among all the stately homes of England there is not one which is more famous in the history of British statesmanship. It was the home of Chatham, who rebuilt the house, and laid out the grounds, which extend to about a hundred acres. Here the great orator indulged himself in his favourite pursuit of landscape gardening, sometimes planting by torchlight, so eager was he to see the fruits of his work. It was in his bedroom at Hayes Place that Chatham died a few weeks after he was carried home from the House

of Lords, where, as you remember, the last sparks of his fiery spirit kindled into momentary flame as he denounced the proposal to conclude peace with France at any price.

2. This old Kentish manor-house was the birthplace of another British statesman who was even more remarkable than Chatham. William Pitt, son of the "Great Commoner," was born at Hayes Place during that extraordinary period when men were forced to ask every morning what new victory had taken place for fear of missing one. He first saw the light a few months before the capture of Quebec, the crowning glory of his father's conduct of the war with France. As a little child his health was extremely delicate. Nevertheless, he was so precocious that at seven years of age he had fully determined to follow in his father's footsteps. It is scarcely too much to say that he was destined to be Prime Minister of Great Britain from his cradle.

3. At thirteen years of age he composed a tragedy which mainly dealt with political things and not at all with boyish heroisms. At fourteen he knew more than most lads of eighteen, and proceeded to Cambridge. So feeble was his health that he was accompanied to college by a nurse. At Cambridge, where he was a most exemplary student, he read hard, especially Latin and Greek, and showed a taste for mathematics. On several occasions he went to London to hear the debates in the House of Commons, and was present at his father's last speech in the House of Lords. After his father's death he became a barrister, and for a time practised his profession. In 1781, when twenty-two years of age, he became member of Parliament for Appleby.

4. His maiden speech in the House of Commons was

declared by a competent judge to be the finest first speech he had ever heard. The House expected much of Chatham's son, and it was not disappointed. "He is not a chip of the old block," said Burke; "he is the old block itself." His progress was astonishingly rapid; he showed a mastery of the House of Commons almost from the day he entered it. In July 1782, at the early age of twenty-three, he became Chancellor of the Exchequer, but only continued in office until the next March, when a coalition or joint Ministry of the two parties was formed, headed by Charles James Fox and Lord North. In December the coalition fell, and within twenty-four hours of its fall the king offered the office of Prime Minister to Pitt, who immediately accepted it. He had attained the summit of his ambition, and he was not yet twenty-five years of age.

5. When his appointment was announced in the House of Commons there was loud and contemptuous laughter. Fox and North declared that they would drive him to resign in three weeks, and the House, at their direction, immediately threw out his Bills. For three months the young Prime Minister fought his powerful and experienced foes with a courage and skill which provoked admiration on all sides; then, in his own good time, he dissolved Parliament, and a general election took place.

6. The result was a great triumph for him. Almost every borough and county where the electors were free to vote as they pleased rejected the candidates recommended by Fox and North. One hundred and sixty supporters of the coalition Government lost their seats,

and were playfully known as "Fox's Martyrs." Pitt returned to Parliament with a clear majority in his favour, and then began his long period of place and power. The election of 1784 is memorable because it overthrew the Whigs, and because it introduced a loftier and honester spirit into political life. Pitt, who was now to reign uninterruptedly for seventeen years, was the very soul of honour. He served his country because he loved her, and not in the hope of making money out of her.

7. Before he was twenty-five Pitt was absolute master of his Cabinet, and the favourite alike of the sovereign, Parliament, and the nation. During the first eight years of his rule the country enjoyed peace; no wars were waged nearer home than India, and the country was anxious for reform. Amongst the reforms which Pitt introduced was a Bill to amend the government of India. You will remember that India was governed by the East India Company—"John Company," as it was familiarly called. You already know how it developed from a mere trading concern into a conquering and sovereign power.

8. In the lesson on Clive you learned that the battle of Plassey, which has been called one of the decisive battles of the world, made us masters of Bengal, the richest province of India. With Clive as Governor of Bengal, British influence extended greatly. The control of all North-East India came into British hands, and the great native state of Oudh was forced to pay tribute. Meanwhile there was a great deal of corruption in the Company's service. The officials and military commanders received small salaries, and scores of them made huge fortunes by "shaking the pagoda



WILLIAM PITT ADDRESSING THE HOUSE OF COMMONS IN FEBRUARY 1793.

(From the picture by Karl Anton Hickel, in the National Portrait Gallery.)

tree"—that is, by blackmailing the natives, taking bribes, and adopting other wrongful devices for exacting money from those who were subject to their authority.

9. Clive did his utmost to put an end to these corrupt practices, and though his reforms were bitterly opposed, he left the Company's service much purer than he found it. The energy with which he attacked these abuses raised up a host of enemies, who charged him with dishonourable

practices in the government of India. In 1767 Clive, who six years before had been raised to the peerage, denied this charge in the House of Commons. A parliamentary inquiry was held, and after months of anxiety the House of Commons passed a resolution that "Robert Lord Clive had rendered great and meritorious services to his country." Nevertheless, his acquittal was a vote of censure, and in a fit of deep depression he committed suicide.

10. In 1770 Bengal suffered terribly from famine, and the Company had to ask Parliament for a loan of a million of money and a remission of its annual payment. The occasion was seized to make important changes in the government of India. A new council was appointed, a supreme court of judges was established, and the Governor of Bengal was made Governor-General of India. Fox attempted to reorganize the control of the Company still further, but his Bill was very unpopular, and was thrown out by the Lords, who were largely influenced by the king. In the same year Pitt essayed the task, and established a method of governing India which remained in force until the year 1858, when the Company was abolished and the Crown took over the administration of the land.

11. Pitt's scheme for the government of India was followed by a plan for the reduction of the National Debt, which proved so successful that in five years he could show a prosperous balance sheet, a scheme for extinguishing the National Debt altogether, and Consols at par. In this way Pitt established his reputation as a great Chancellor of the Exchequer. While he was thus engaged Indian affairs once more created a sensation in the country.

12. Warren Hastings, the successor of Clive, had returned home in 1785 with a record of eminent services. He had strengthened if not preserved our Indian Empire, but he had also done acts which, though they might have appeared to him necessary, would not bear strict scrutiny. A strong party, assisted by the great orator Edmund Burke, Fox, the passionate advocate of liberty, and Sheridan, the brilliant parliamentarian and playwright, determined to bring him to justice. His trial began in 1785, and was the occasion of some of the most brilliant speeches ever delivered in Parliament. It dragged on for eight years, and in the end Hastings, now a broken, ruined man, was acquitted.

13. One other incident of Pitt's career must detain us before we pass on to the great work of his life. In 1787 he sent out a small colonizing party to found the meagre settlement which has now grown into the great Commonwealth of Australia. In 1770—a red-letter year in our colonial history—Captain James Cook, during his voyage in the southern seas, sailed along the east coast of Australia and planted the British flag on the shores of what is now New South Wales.

14. Cook's glowing accounts of the beauty of Botany Bay and the fertility of the surrounding country encouraged Pitt, seventeen years later, to send out a party of convicts and soldiers to found a colony. The magnificent harbour of Port Jackson was discovered, and on its shores the first settlement was made, and called Sydney, after Lord Sydney, Secretary for the Colonies. The British flag was hoisted on January 26, 1788; and the anniversary of that date is now observed as a national holiday throughout the Com-

monwealth of Australia, which with its six states and its four millions of white inhabitants has sprung from this humble beginning.

15. Pitt's name is also honourably associated with attempts to give Ireland equal commercial privileges with England, and to reform Parliament by taking away the representation of little, decayed boroughs and transferring it to the growing commercial towns which as yet had no members. Both his Irish and his parliamentary reform schemes were defeated. He was in full sympathy with Clarkson and Wilberforce, who were trying to abolish the slave trade ; and with Whitbread, who was labouring to improve the condition of the poor, and to establish a system of popular education. None of these efforts, however, bore fruit during his short lifetime.

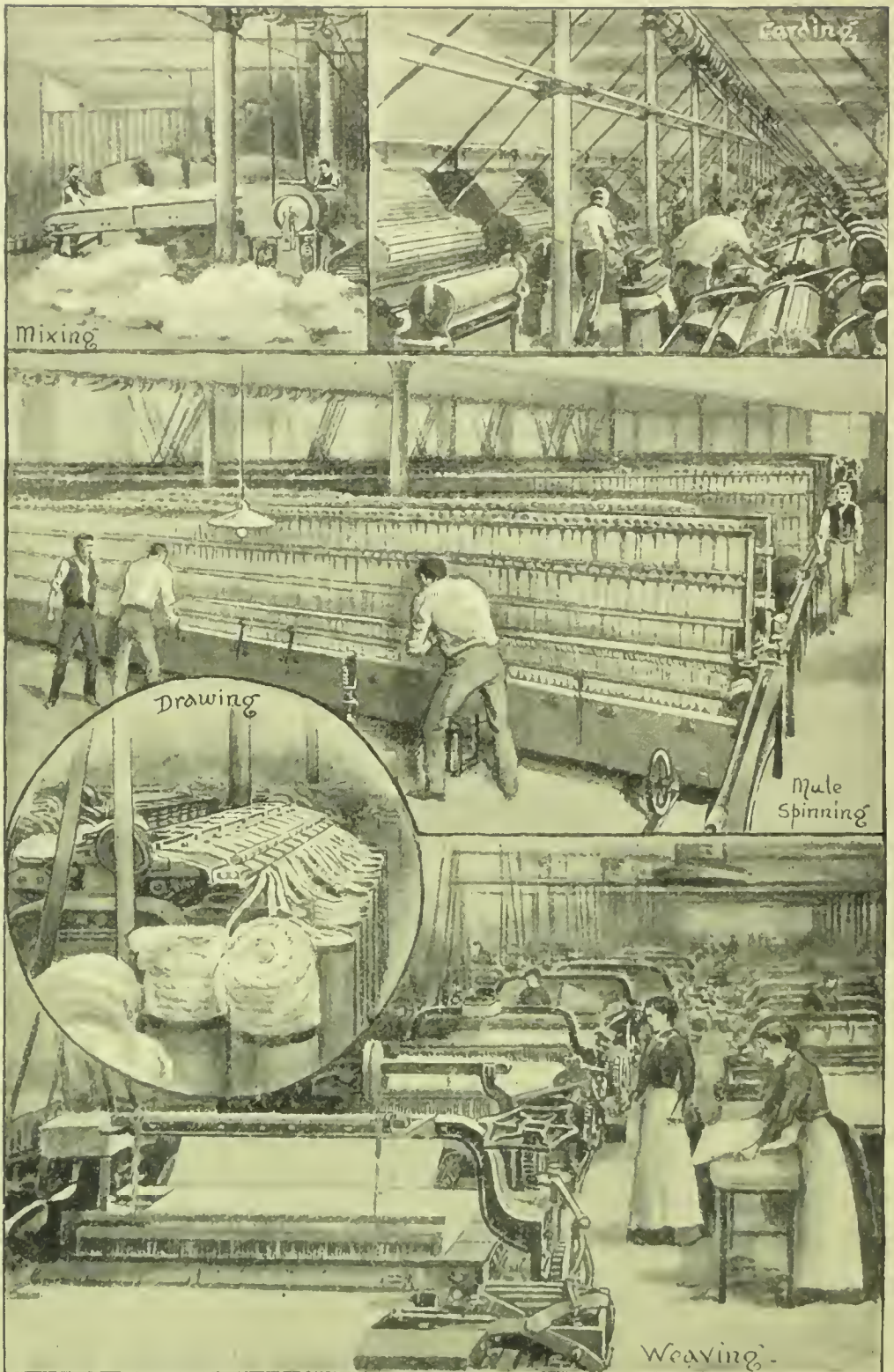
16. As a matter of fact, Pitt did little to improve the political condition of the country, not from any lack of desire, but because the whole energies of the best years of his life were devoted to the task of guiding the country through the greatest of its wars. From the year 1789 until the day of his death in 1806 he was leading the European opposition to France. His antagonist was none other than Napoleon Bonaparte, the "Terror of Europe." Pitt was by nature a lover of peace and a friend of enlightened progress ; but the force of circumstances made him a war minister, and thus prevented him from bringing about any great reforms. Lord Rosebery says of him, "There may have been men both abler and greater than he, though it is not easy to cite them ; but in all history there is no more patriotic spirit, none more intrepid, and none more pure."

24. THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION.

1. To-day we will visit one of the great Lancashire cotton manufacturing towns. What will strike you most in these towns is the large number of great bare buildings or mills, as they are locally called. Most of them are huge blocks of brick and mortar four or five stories high, with nothing to break their monotony but row after row of windows and the lofty chimney-stack which belches forth its clouds of black smoke. Let us enter one of these cotton factories. We are at once assailed with the deafening noise of running machinery, which performs in an almost marvellous manner every operation conducted in the place.

2. Machines break open the bales of cotton which have come from the plantations of the southern United States, from the great delta of the Nile, or from India. Other machines loosen the fibres and partly cleanse the wool, mix it, beat it, and purify it until it is turned out in a felt-like fleece. Then the carding machines take it in hand, and straighten and lengthen the fibres until they form a sort of ribbon about an inch broad. It is next passed on to another series of machines, which double it, twist it, draw it, and finally spin it into yarn. When the yarn is ready for weaving it is known as the "cop." The weaving sheds in which the "cop" is woven into cotton cloth sometimes contain hundreds of looms of the most complicated and ingenious character. The cotton mills of Lancashire alone contain millions of shuttles and hundreds of thousands of looms.

3. Now look at the workers. They are simply the



THE PROCESSES OF COTTON MANUFACTURE IN A MODERN MILL.

tenters and feeders of the machines. All they have to do is to see that their machines work smoothly, to keep them well supplied with raw material, and to fetch and carry for their rapacious jaws. Large numbers of men are employed, but most of the operatives are women and children. You see them hurrying to their work in the early morning, and hear "the clang of their wooden shoon" on the pavements. At noon a bell rings or a steam whistle sounds, and the work-people hurry off for their midday meal, while gangs of cleaners take advantage of the temporary stoppage of the machinery. Then the bell or whistle sounds again, and once more the din of machinery begins. At six in the evening work ceases for the day, and the mills disgorge their thousands of weary workers, who hurry home to take their evening meal and enjoy their leisure. The Lancashire cotton mills alone employ more than three million persons.

4. In many other parts of Great Britain you will find a similar system in vogue for the manufacture of other articles of necessity or luxury. This factory system is based on the principle of "division of labour"—that is, no person makes the whole of an article, but confines himself to performing, day after day, the same single operation or set of operations on the same materials presented to him in the same form. The work may be monotonous, but the worker under such a system becomes wonderfully dexterous and rapid, and production is thus enormously increased and cheapened.

5. Now this system had its beginnings in Great Britain during the years when George the Third was wrangling

with the Whigs and quarrelling with his subjects in America. At the beginning of the eighteenth century England was by no means conspicuous as a manufacturing and commercial country, and the north of England was especially backward. Daniel Defoe wrote in 1725, "The country south of the Trent is by far the largest, as well as the richest and most populous." Forty or fifty years later there was a great migration of work-people to the north of England. Lancashire and Yorkshire began to fill up and to become the seats of the cotton and woollen manufactures; Staffordshire and Yorkshire became pottery and hardware centres; while Durham and Northumberland greatly developed their mining industries. Thus the north of England became the richest industrial portion of the country.

6. The first great industry which took root in Lancashire is still the chief source of its wealth. Up to the accession of George the Third no fabric consisting entirely of cotton was made in England. Suddenly, however, as a result of certain remarkable inventions, a revolution was wrought, and cotton soon became the most important of our manufactures. The factory system, however, had not yet arrived; the work was done in the homes of the operatives.

7. Inside the narrow red-brick houses of Lancashire towns were domestic workshops, in which whole families worked together to make cotton cloth, or rather cloth with a linen warp and a weft of cotton wool. The linen yarn was purchased in a prepared state, the wool for the weft was carded and spun by the wife and daughters, and the cloth was woven by the father and his sons. The spin-

ning was done on the old-fashioned spinning-wheel, which even now is used in some rural parts of Scotland and Ireland.

8. About the year 1767 James Hargreaves, a weaver of Blackburn, invented what was called the "spinning-jenny." Before this invention one thread only could be spun at a time. Hargreaves's jenny consisted at first of eight spindles, turned by a horizontal wheel; but it was afterwards enlarged and improved so as to give motion to eighty spindles at once. Hargreaves's jenny thus enabled one person to do the work formerly accomplished by fifty or eighty operatives. This was the first of the many remarkable inventions which in a short space of time completely transformed industry in Great Britain.

9. Richard Arkwright further improved the machinery for making yarn; and Samuel Crompton combined Arkwright's invention with Hargreaves's jenny, and so produced the mule by means of which yarn of the finest character could be spun. Fifteen years later a power-loom was invented. These inventions could not be set up in the home. They needed specially arranged buildings; and as they were frequently driven by water-power, such buildings had to be erected on the banks of streams. The work-people were now obliged to leave their domestic workshops for the factories, and thus the modern system began. It must not be supposed that progress was only made in cotton manufacture. In the manufacture of wool, linen, silk, earthenware, and iron, great strides were also made.

10. Now we come to the era of steam. The mechanical

improvements described above could have made but little progress had not steam been utilized as a motive-power. In 1765 James Watt transformed the steam-engine "from a mere toy into the most wonderful instrument which human industry has ever had at its command." To the introduction of steam, together with our vast stores of coal and other mineral wealth, we owe our modern industrial system.

11. The industrial revolution was not accomplished without considerable suffering on the part of the work-people. It came about so suddenly that they had no time to accommodate themselves to the changed conditions. The new machines produced articles so rapidly and so cheaply that the hand workers could not compete with them. Consequently they were thrown out of work. Frequently they rioted and destroyed the machinery, which they believed to be the source of all their misery. In the end, however, they had either to crowd into the towns where the new factories were situated, or starve.

12. Then, too, the millowners, in their haste to grow rich, were careless of the lives and health of their employees. The workshops were insanitary, the hours of labour were excessive, the dwellings of the people were wretched in the extreme, and wages were very low. The greatest possible misery prevailed, and many years elapsed before the condition of the millworkers was improved and the benefits of the new system were felt by all classes of the community.

13. With the growth of manufactures came a great increase in the population, and consequently an increased

demand for food. This stimulated agriculture, and encouraged farmers to grow wheat wherever a crop could be raised. It is said that between the years 1760 and 1780 more new land was brought under cultivation than during the whole preceding century. Thus the landowning classes benefited by the industrial revolution, and the yield of their lands was increased by the use of machinery. All this increase in industry led to better means of communication. The land was covered with a network of canals, which enabled goods to be distributed cheaply. The muddy lanes, which were England's only roads, disappeared, and by means of Turnpike Acts new and well-made highways were constructed, along which fast travelling coaches made their way from town to town.

14. The vast growth of manufactures and the consequent increase in agriculture made Britain the richest of all countries. It gave her half a century's start of other nations, and enabled her to become the workshop of the world. This in itself explains the rapid and comparatively easy manner in which she was enabled to pay off the vast burden of the American War. Further, it explains how she provided the sinews of war for the great struggle which was about to begin. While the war ran its course Britain was the only European nation which enjoyed peace at home. Consequently her manufactures were undisturbed, and continental nations *had* to purchase her wares. Britain could never have successfully opposed France and overcome the great Napoleon had not her wealth been so vastly increased by the developments which have just been described.



ARC DE TRIOMPHE DU CARROUSEL (IN THE GARDENS OF THE TUILERIES).

25. THE "TERROR OF EUROPE."—I.

1. Come with me to the gardens of the Tuileries. The palace, with its memories of Lewis the Fifteenth and Lewis the Sixteenth, no longer exists ; it was burned down by a revolutionary mob in the year 1871, and on its site the gardens which we are now visiting were laid out. The great palace of the Louvre, with its unrivalled collection of art treasures, stands to the north of the gardens, separated from them by the square known as the Place du Carrousel. Crossing this square towards the gardens we are confronted by an Arch of Triumph of very noble design and artistic

decoration. It is an imitation of the famous arch which the Romans set up in Rome to the honour of that dogged warrior, the Emperor Severus, who, you will remember, visited Britain and died at York. The arch which we are now examining commemorates the glories of a far greater soldier than Severus—Napoleon the First, the Emperor of the French.

2. I want you to notice carefully the scenes carved on the arch. They represent certain of the most striking incidents in Napoleon's career, and illustrate some of the steps by which he made himself absolute master of continental Europe. Here, for example, is a bas-relief illustrating the surrender of thirty thousand Austrians at Ulm on May 19, 1805. As a result of this surrender Austria lay at the mercy of Napoleon, who, as you will see on another of the carvings, marched his army in triumph into Vienna.

3. Here is a design representative of the battle of Austerlitz, which was fought in the next year. This battle is sometimes called the Battle of the Emperors, because in it no fewer than three emperors commanded troops—Alexander of Russia and Francis of Austria on the one side, and Napoleon on the other. The allies suffered a great and decisive defeat at Austerlitz, and soon afterwards the Peace of Presburg, which is represented on another of the bas-reliefs, was signed, and Austria was shorn of some of her most cherished possessions. Another design shows us Napoleon as the unchallenged arbiter and king-maker of Europe. You see him on a raft on the river Niemen forcing the Tsar of Russia to do his bidding, arranging and rearranging states, and creating thrones for his brothers to occupy.

4. Before we learn something further of his career, let us visit another place of great interest in Paris. We cross a bridge from the Place de la Concorde, and make our way to a great building which is known as the Hôtel des Invalides. It is now a vast military museum, containing war trophies, collections of arms, and numerous paintings commemorating the victories of France. We pass round to the front and



TOMB OF NAPOLEON.

enter a great domed building, on which the artistic genius of France has been lavished. In the centre is a great open space railed round with a balustrade. Look down. Beneath that great granite tomb lie the mortal remains of the man who raised his country to the highest pinnacle of military glory, and with his dying breath besought his conquerors that his ashes might repose "on the banks of the Seine in the midst of the French people whom he had loved so well." His wish has been respected, and there is no place in all France so sacred to the patriotic Frenchman of to-day. Above Napoleon's tomb hang fifty-four flags taken in the most striking of the twelve great victories which he won.

5. Napoleon Bonaparte was a child of the French Revolution. He was born at Ajaccio, in Corsica, in the year

which saw the American colonists beginning to rise against the British Government. In the first year of American independence Bonaparte was a "gentleman cadet" in the military school at Paris. Here he was chiefly noteworthy as a silent, haughty lad, full of self-love and of great ambition. He was studious, and very fond of mathematics and geography, but his abilities were not striking. None of his teachers prophesied for him the astonishing genius which he was destined to display. In 1785 he became a lieutenant of artillery.

6. Four years later the French people rose in wrath and swept away the old order of things. For centuries the kings and nobles of France had grossly mismanaged the country, and had bitterly oppressed the people. The state was well-nigh bankrupt, and the land was full of starving and despairing men. When, in May 1789, Lewis the Sixteenth was forced to call together the French Estates General, which had not been convoked since 1614, every one was prepared for a great change. The "Third Estate," or Commons, boldly seized the reins of government, and proclaimed itself the National Assembly. At once there was intense excitement all over France, and the people were on the eve of revolt everywhere.

7. In July Paris rose, and the National Guards joined the people. The Bastille, or state prison, was stormed, the prisoners were released, and the garrison slain. All over the country the peasants rose, murdered the nobles, and burned their castles. The king was powerless to interfere, and the Assembly, backed by the mob, passed laws which swept away all the privileges of the nobles and the rights



THE ATTACK ON THE BASTILLE.

(From a contemporary print.)

of the Church. Before long the king and his family tried to escape from the country, but they were discovered, brought back, and treated as prisoners. Meanwhile large numbers of the nobles had sought refuge in foreign courts, and were urging foreign Governments to declare war on France. When the German sovereigns threatened invasion, the French declared war against Austria and Prussia.

8. The leaders of the people became more and more violent, and in the autumn of 1792 the king was deposed and a Republic set up. On the twenty-first of January 1793 Lewis was executed, and a few months later the axe fell on

his wife's neck. A thrill of horror went through Great Britain, and in the next month war was declared. Hostilities could no longer be safely delayed. The French had taken possession of Belgium, and were inciting those whom they called the "Republicans of England" to rise against the Government. Great Britain, Holland, Spain, Austria, and Prussia now leagued themselves against France, and in February 1793 began the great war which lasted, with two short intervals, until the allies entered Paris on July 7, 1815. The revolutionary fever grew apace. In the summer of 1793, during the awful "Reign of Terror," no fewer than 1,400 persons were executed in six weeks, and some of the most bloodthirsty scenes in all history took place.

9. During this terrible time army after army was being raised, though the Government had scarcely the means to feed and clothe the soldiers. These armies of the Republic showed wonderful spirit and energy, while the allies were sluggish and disunited. Consequently the French were enabled to carry the war into the enemy's country. Holland was conquered, and then Prussia and Spain made peace with France, leaving Britain and Austria to carry on the war. Meanwhile the government of France, after several changes, had passed into the hands of a body of five persons called the "Directory." Twice Britain attempted to make peace with this body, but with no success. At the end of the year 1795 France held the upper hand in Europe.

10. Now let us return to Napoleon. In 1793 we find him a zealous Republican, in command of the artillery which was to besiege the naval port of Toulon, then in possession of the British, who had been called in by the Royalist in-

habitants of the town. Napoleon conducted the siege with such skill that the British were forced to evacuate Toulon, not, however, without burning part of the French fleet which lay in the harbour and setting fire to the arsenal.

11. Napoleon rose rapidly in the service of the Republic. In 1796 we find him a general in command of the army of Italy, and at the beginning of his extraordinary career. At this time Austria was the chief continental enemy of the French people, and as she held possessions in Italy Napoleon was sent to attack them. "Soldiers," said he, "you are naked and ill-fed; I will lead you into the most fruitful plains in the world. Rich provinces and great cities will be in your power. There you will find honour, and fame, and wealth!" From the first his genius as a commander shone forth. In two campaigns he completely conquered the Austrian and Sardinian dominions in the valley of the Po, and was acclaimed on all hands as the greatest general of the Republic. As he rose in fame and influence new vistas opened before him, and he soon perceived that the highest position in the State was his to grasp.

12. Now he advanced into Austria itself, and carried all before him. When he was within eighty miles of Vienna the emperor begged for peace, and obtained it at the price of Belgium and Lombardy. Prussia now abandoned the allies, and Holland and Spain had already purchased peace by promising the Republic the use of their navies. Great Britain was thus left alone to face France, Holland, and Spain. Her fleets were busy blockading the great naval ports of Texel, Brest, Ferrol, Cadiz, Cartagena, and Toulon,

and thus preventing the fleets within their harbours from putting to sea.

13. In December 1796 the Brest fleet dashed out during a storm and sailed for Kerry, where an invasion was to take place, Ireland being then in revolt. After a stormy passage, which dispersed the fleet, a few ships assembled in Bantry Bay, only to discover that nothing could be accomplished in Ireland. Meanwhile another fleet, manned chiefly by liberated galley slaves, attempted to land near Fishguard, in Pembrokeshire ; but the invaders were frightened back to their ships by a few yeomanry and militia, and by a crowd of Welshwomen, whose red cloaks and tall black hats gave them in the distance a martial appearance. The women of Fishguard to this day annually celebrate the event.

26. THE "TERROR OF EUROPE."—II.

1. In 1797 a more determined effort was made to invade Britain. The Spanish, Dutch, and French fleets were to unite, and hold the Channel while the troops crossed. When, however, the Spanish fleet was on the way to Brest, Admiral Jervis fell in with it off Cape St. Vincent, and in the fight which followed took several of the enemy's ships and drove the rest into Cadiz harbour. This put an end to the projected invasion for a time. During the autumn of the same year Britain made another effort to come to terms with France, but without avail.

2. The French Government was still bent on invading England, and the Dutch fleet was now ordered to leave

Texel and join the French fleet. Off Camperdown it was met by Admiral Duncan's fleet, and a battle ensued in which the British captured twelve of the enemy's ships. Duncan's victory was all the more remarkable because the crews of his ships had mutinied at the Nore only a few months previously. At first it was thought that revolutionary principles had infected the sailors; but Pitt soon perceived that the



ADMIRAL DUNCAN'S VICTORY OFF CAMPERDOWN, OCTOBER 11, 1797.

(From the painting by D. Orme.)

men were in revolt simply because they were badly paid, ill-fed, and harshly treated by their commanders. When their ringleader was hanged and their grievances were redressed they returned to their duty and fought with all their old spirit and success.

3. Meanwhile, what was Napoleon doing? He returned from Italy to Paris to find France ready for still greater

adventures on the field of battle, and especially for any campaign which would bring Britain to her knees. He was now entrusted with an army which was to take the first step in winning back India.

4. Napoleon considered Egypt the key to India, and believed that whoever possessed and colonized it was bound to be sooner or later master of the great peninsula. Accordingly, in May 1798, he sailed from Toulon with a fleet and transports conveying twenty-eight thousand troops, and a staff of professors and scientific men who were to investigate the ancient wonders of Egypt. On the way Malta was seized, and on the second of July the port of Alexandria was captured. Then began a series of French successes, and by the end of July Egypt was in Napoleon's hands.

5. Now we must interrupt the narrative to introduce the great British sailor who was always a thorn in Napoleon's side, and who, more than any other man, won for us that mastery of the seas which ultimately brought about his overthrow. Horatio Nelson, the proudest name in all the proud annals of the British navy, was now thirty-nine years of age. He had been at sea since the age of twelve, and though delicate in health he had from the first shown himself absolutely fearless and most zealous in the exercise of his profession. At twenty-one he was a captain in the Royal Navy—"the merest boy of a captain," as Prince William, afterwards William the Fourth, described him. Nevertheless, there was no better seaman or more gallant officer in all the service.

6. Nelson had been present at Toulon when it fell into the hands of the British, and he had besieged and captured

Bastia, in Corsica, with a handful of men. Already he had been in touch with Napoleon in a gallant but unavailing attempt to prevent the French general from entering Italy by the coast road along the Riviera; and already he had shared in the glory of victory at St. Vincent, where he boarded and captured a Spanish ship across the deck of another then in his possession. Already he was the darling of his sailors and a source of pride to the nation, in whose service he had lost an arm and the sight of an eye.

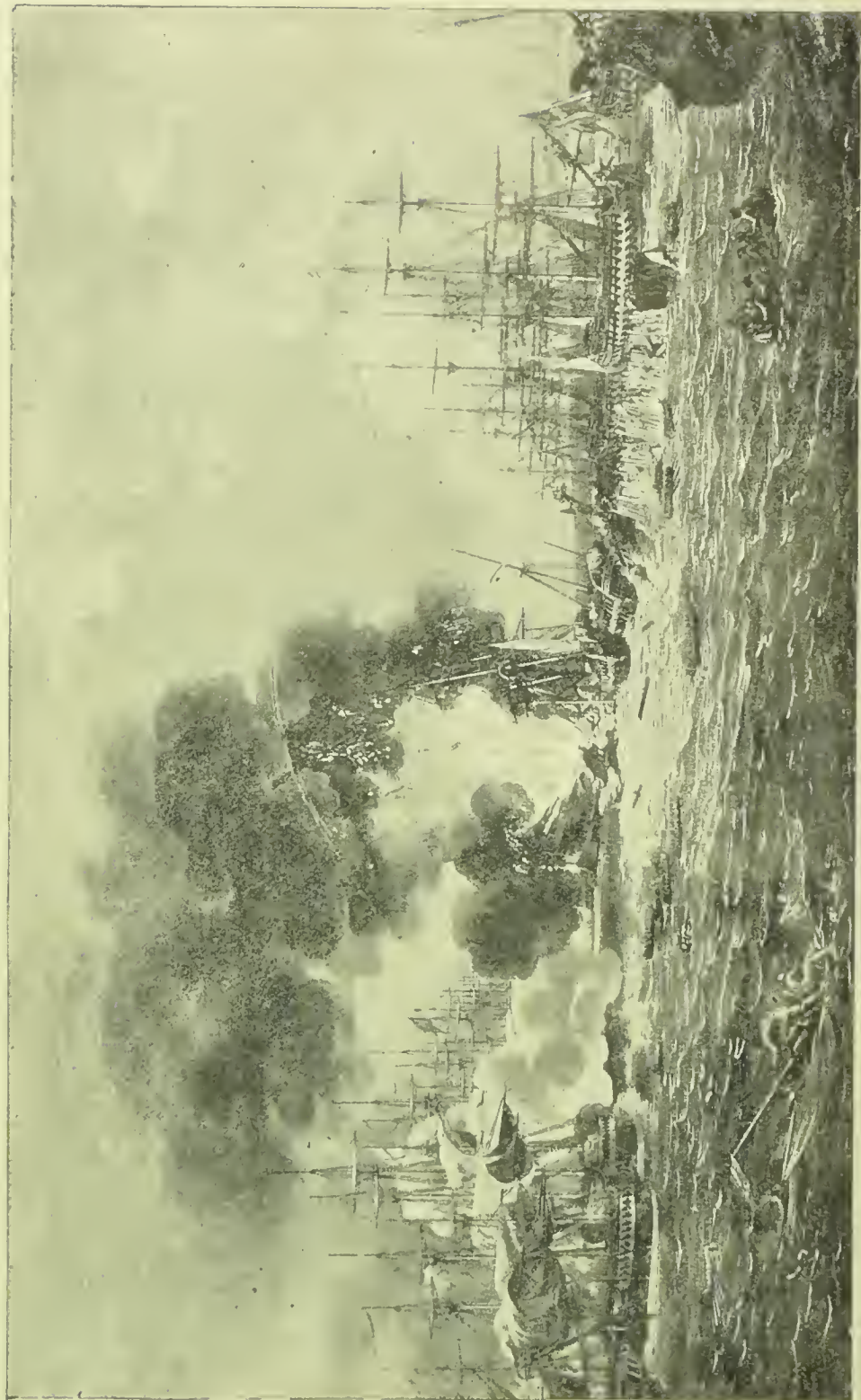
7. Now he was scouring the Mediterranean in command of a fleet, with orders to seek the French fleet and use his best endeavours to take, sink, burn, and destroy it. After a long and anxious quest he at last discovered it at anchor in Aboukir Bay. "We are moored in such a manner," wrote the French admiral, "as to bid defiance to a force more than double our own." The French ships were anchored in single file along the shore, with three miles of shoal water between them and the land, and the admiral believed that no war vessel could possibly get to the shoreward of him. In this he was utterly mistaken. Nelson, with the eye of genius, saw that where there was room for a French ship to swing at anchor there was room for one of his ships to sail, and he cried, "Before this time to-morrow I shall have gained a peerage or Westminster Abbey."

8. His prophecy proved true. He sailed his ships up on both sides of the French vessels, and by placing the enemy between two fires almost destroyed them. When in the night the French flagship *L'Orient* blew up with thunderous roar, the battle of the Nile ended, and in the morning only two ships of the French fleet had escaped.

now confessed to great admiration for Napoleon. Thus Britain was once more left alone to wage war single-handed against the "Terror of Europe." Indeed, it seemed likely that she would have to fight Russia and the other northern Powers of Europe as well; for Napoleon had formed a league for the purpose of subduing Britain by striking at her trade. He persuaded the northern Powers—Russia, Denmark, and Sweden—to mass their fleets and close all their ports against British ships. This was a deep-laid scheme, but it came to nothing.

13. A British fleet, under Sir Hyde Parker and Lord Nelson, was sent to Copenhagen, where the ships of the Danes lay. Sir Hyde Parker was irresolute and dilatory, but Nelson was all eagerness and determination. In the end nearly all the Danish fleet was disabled, and the shore batteries were silenced. Then Nelson offered a truce, which the Danes were glad to accept. About a week before the battle the Russian Tsar had been murdered, and his successor proved more friendly to Britain, and concluded an alliance with her.

14. Meanwhile the French army had been driven out of Egypt. Napoleon had thus failed in all his attacks on the obstinate islanders, and he was ready for a breathing-space in which to recruit his armies and build up a navy powerful enough to beat Britain. Accordingly, peace was signed at Amiens (March 27, 1802). By this peace Great Britain restored all the colonial conquests which she had made during the war, except Ceylon and Trinidad. This was all that she gained from a struggle which had cost her thousands of lives, and had added £270,000,000 to the National Debt.



CAPTURE OF COPENHAGEN, 1801: THE "DANNEBROG" ON FIRE.

(After the picture by J. P. Serres.)

27. THE UNION WITH IRELAND.—I.

1. In the heart of the city of Dublin there is an open square known as College Green. The Green has long since been converted into a busy thoroughfare, adorned with statues, and faced by two of the most notable buildings of Ireland—Trinity College and the Bank of Ireland. In front of Trinity College are statues to two of its most renowned students—Edmund Burke, the great orator, and Oliver Goldsmith, the famous poet, novelist, and playwright. In the square itself is a statue to William the Third, and another to Henry Grattan, probably the greatest name in all Irish Parliamentary history. Grattan's statue appropriately faces the scene of his labours, the stately building now occupied by a bank, but up to the seventh day of June in the year 1800 the Parliament House of Ireland.

2. Let us ask one of the bank porters to show us the interior. Our guide tells us that the House of Commons, which was in the centre of the building, has been turned into a board room and accountants' offices, but that the House of Lords is almost intact. We examine this chamber with interest. We notice that a statue of George the Third occupies the place of the throne, and our attention is specially attracted by the handsome chimney-pieces, and by two pieces of tapestry representing the "Siege of Derry" and the "Battle of the Boyne."

3. Here, in this deserted legislative chamber, let us inquire how Ireland came to lose her Parliament. First, we must understand that the Irish Parliament which had its seat in

this building never was the Parliament of the Irish people, but only of the small Protestant section of the population. No Roman Catholic could sit in Parliament, and during by far the greater part of its existence no Roman Catholic could vote for members of it. This denial of political right was, however, but the least of the grievances which oppressed the majority of the people, who firmly adhered to their old faith. Roman Catholics were not allowed to hold any office in the State ; they were forbidden to carry arms ; they might not possess a horse worth more than twenty pounds ; and they were prevented from buying land. So completely did these penal laws shut out Roman Catholics in Ireland from every profession, every Government office, and every duty of citizenship, that an Irish judge once said, “The law does not suppose any such person as an Irish Roman Catholic to exist.”

4. Besides being merely the representative of a minority of the population, the Irish Parliament was wholly subject to the British Government. By Poynings’s Law, of which you read in Book IV., every measure brought before the Irish Parliament had first to be approved by the British Privy Council. In the year 1719 a new law—“the Sixth of George the First”—was passed which went much further than Poynings’s Law, for it declared that the British Parliament had the right to make laws for Ireland. In this way the Irish Parliament on College Green was robbed of its rights, and as far as legislation was concerned became a mere sham.

5. At this time there were two parties in the Irish Parliament—the Court party and the Patriots. The mem-

bers of the Court party were ready to support any plan for keeping the Irish Parliament in subjection to the British Government, and their services were rewarded with pensions, offices, and titles. The Patriots, on the other hand, greatly desired that the Irish Parliament should be free to make laws for Ireland without British interference. They also wished to reform Parliament, so that it might



THE BANK OF IRELAND, FORMERLY THE IRISH HOUSE OF PARLIAMENT.

This fine building was begun in 1729, and was the seat of the Irish Parliament until its union with that of Great Britain in January 1801. The statue in front is that of Henry Grattan (1746-1820), whose eloquence has been said to be the finest heard in the British Isles since the days of Chatham.

be really representative of the Irish people. Henry Flood and Henry Grattan, two Protestants of genius and burning eloquence, were the leaders of this party.

6. Ireland has never lacked grievances, and she certainly had many at this time. The people were wretchedly poor; their trade and manufactures had to a large extent been crushed out in the interests of England; the taxation was heavy, and too often its proceeds were given to worthless

persons to be squandered in idle luxury. Dean Swift, the celebrated Dean of St. Patrick's, and one of the most powerful writers of his age, felt great sympathy for his downtrodden, poverty-stricken country, and published a series of essays fiercely denouncing the British-made laws which had crushed out Irish industry.

7. His wrath was specially directed against the new copper coinage which was introduced into Ireland in 1723. A patent had been granted by the king to the Duchess of Kendal, permitting her to coin £108,000 worth of halfpence and farthings for use in Ireland. The duchess sold the right of minting the coins to an iron merchant named Wood, who looked forward to a considerable profit. This attempt at a gross "job" aroused the utmost indignation amongst all classes. Swift, by his "Drapier's Letters," and other writers by their pamphlets and songs, excited the country to such a pitch that in the year 1725 the king was obliged to withdraw the patent for "Wood's halfpence."

8. Flood and Grattan led the Patriots in Parliament with great vigour and skill, and their untiring efforts aroused the spirit of independence in the people. Flood persuaded the House to declare that it alone had the right to decide upon measures for taxing the people and spending the revenue. In 1767 he and his brother Patriots managed to get the life of an Irish Parliament reduced to eight years. Formerly it had lasted just as long as the king wished it to last, and the members were practically members for life.

9. The Patriots also reduced the amount of the pension list, and did away with some of the penal laws. Flood's

ambition, however, led him into accepting an office under Government. His mouth was now closed on many questions of importance, and he speedily lost all influence with his former friends. Henry Grattan then stepped to the front as the leader of the Patriots. He was a man of brilliant gifts and fiery patriotism, and his name ought to be dear to every Irish heart.

10. The American War had a most important influence on the affairs of Ireland. The country was drained of troops, and was left unprotected at the very time when it was being threatened by French cruisers, and Paul Jones, the American privateer, was seizing ships off the coast. The British Government proposed to send over German soldiers, but the Irish House of Commons declared that the loyal people of Ireland were well able to take care of themselves. Accordingly, volunteers, both Roman Catholic and Protestant, were enrolled for the defence of the island, and by the end of the year 1779 no less than forty-two thousand armed and drilled men were under the command of the Earl of Charlemont. These volunteers, it must be remembered, were all Patriots, and thus Grattan had an armed and organized force at his back.

11. Parliament met on April 16, 1782, and Grattan was master of the situation. The volunteers had resolved to demand legislative independence, free and open trade, and a measure of relief for Roman Catholics. Grattan lost no time in moving resolutions to this effect, and the British Government agreed to them. The hated "Sixth of George the First" was repealed, several restrictions were removed from Irish trade, and henceforth Ireland had a

Parliament which was free to make any laws it pleased for the island.

12. This Parliament, however, was in urgent need of reform. Not more than seventy-two out of its three hundred members were returned by the free votes of the electors, and the electors, it must be remembered, were all Protestants. Five-sixths of the total population of Ireland was not represented at all. The Patriots now proposed a Reform Bill; but the Court party obstinately resisted, and after a bitter contest the Bill was rejected. A proposal to remove further restrictions from Irish trade fared no better, and thus the Irish people found that their Home Rule Parliament was powerless to remove the distress and discontent which were prevalent everywhere. Secret societies arose among the peasantry, and the country was in a very disturbed state. Encounters between these societies were frequent, and a good deal of blood was shed.

13. About the year 1789 many of the ideas which gave rise to the French Revolution began to take root in Ireland. The Revolution itself created intense excitement, and clubs were formed everywhere to further reform of Parliament and secure equality of treatment for all Irishmen. In 1791 Wolfe Tone, a high-spirited, eloquent, young lawyer, founded for this purpose the Society of the United Irishmen, which included men of all classes and both religions.

14. One year later a Bill was passed through the Irish Parliament restoring the franchise to the Roman Catholics, opening to them many offices in the State, and granting them permission to open colleges. This was a great triumph; but Roman Catholics could not yet be members of Parlia-

ment, and this disability Grattan now set himself to remove. Towards the end of 1794 Pitt was entirely in favour of putting Roman Catholics on exactly the same footing as their Protestant fellow-subjects, both in England and in Ireland. He sent Earl Fitzwilliam, an enlightened and liberal but indiscreet statesman, to Dublin as Lord-Lieutenant, and the Irish were led to believe that they would soon obtain full political rights.

28. THE UNION WITH IRELAND.—II.

1. Fitzwilliam landed in January 1795, but was recalled soon after, to the great sorrow and indignation of Roman Catholics and Protestants alike. Then all attempts to carry out the new policy ceased. The fact was that mischief-makers had gained access to George the Third, and had assured him that the Protestant religion was in danger. Thereupon the king persuaded himself that he would be breaking his coronation oath if he freed the Roman Catholics from their disabilities. No argument could move him; he honestly believed that he would be guilty of perjury if he dealt impartially with all his subjects.

2. Bitterly disappointed at the failure of their hopes, the United Irishmen, who now numbered half a million of men, became a rebellious organization. The gatherings of the members became secret, and drillings were frequent in out-of-the-way places. Men of ability, rank, and influence now joined the society, including Lord Edward Fitzgerald, a brother of the Duke of Leinster. Inspired by the success of the French in setting up a republic, the United Irishmen

proposed to follow their example. Spies, however, revealed the plans of the society, and Wolfe Tone was obliged to fly to America. Soon afterwards he recrossed the Atlantic to France, and there begged assistance for the Irish, now on the brink of revolt.

3. Meanwhile Ireland was in a frightful state of disorder, and civil war almost raged in the north. The Government proclaimed martial law, and the soldiers repaid violence with still greater violence. "On the one side there were murders, roastings, plunder of arms, and a reign of terror; on the other, picketing, scourging, hanging—half or whole—house-burning, and a reign of not less terror. The miseries of the Thirty Years' War were scarcely more appalling." In 1796 the French, moved by Wolfe Tone's entreaties, dispatched that unlucky fleet whose ill-success was described on page 173. In the next year the French Government ordered the Dutch to send an invading fleet, which, as you will remember, was utterly defeated by Admiral Duncan at Camperdown.

4. All hope of securing foreign help had now vanished, and the United Irishmen resolved on a general rising. A meeting of the leaders in Dublin was betrayed, and fourteen of them were captured. Lord Edward Fitzgerald escaped, and for some time lay in hiding; but he, too, was seized, and in the scuffle which ensued received wounds of which he died sixteen days later.

5. These prompt measures made the rising, which began towards the end of May 1798, a partial revolt, foredoomed to failure. In Kildare, Wicklow, and Wexford the rebels for a time gained the upper hand. Then followed dreadful

scenes of cruelty on both sides, almost rivalling the excesses of the Paris mobs. On the march to Dublin the Irish were intercepted and defeated, whereupon they withdrew to their camp on Vinegar Hill, near Enniscorthy. Here they were attacked by General Lake at the head of twenty thousand men, and, without much fighting, put to flight. This practically ended the rebellion, and then the whole country was at the mercy of the Orange yeomen and militia, who in turn committed all sorts of atrocities on the defeated peasantry.

6. Lord Cornwallis, who, you will remember, had been forced to surrender at Yorktown, was appointed Viceroy in June. He was a humane man, and did his utmost to stop the dreadful cruelties that were being practised by the victors. Nevertheless, in spite of all that he could do, hanging and shooting and burning went on for several months. Still his rule was so just and merciful that he won the easily-aroused gratitude of the Irish people, who cried "God bless you!" as he passed through the Dublin streets.

7. The last event of the revolt occurred in December 1798, when a French fleet and army appeared off the coast. General Humbert, who was in command, routed some militia; but he was surrounded and captured by Lord Cornwallis, and the rebellion was at an end. Wolfe Tone, who had accompanied the expedition, was captured, and committed suicide in his prison cell. The United Irishmen ceased to exist, and in every part of the island resistance to the English power came to an end.

8. Pitt now determined to abolish the Irish Parliament,

and make the British Parliament the sole law-making body for the three kingdoms. He proposed to give Roman Catholics precisely the same rights as their Protestant fellow-subjects, and permit them to elect members to the British House of Lords and the House of Commons. The Irish Parliament alone could abolish itself. It must therefore be persuaded to take its own life, since no Act of the British Parliament could either bind it or destroy it.

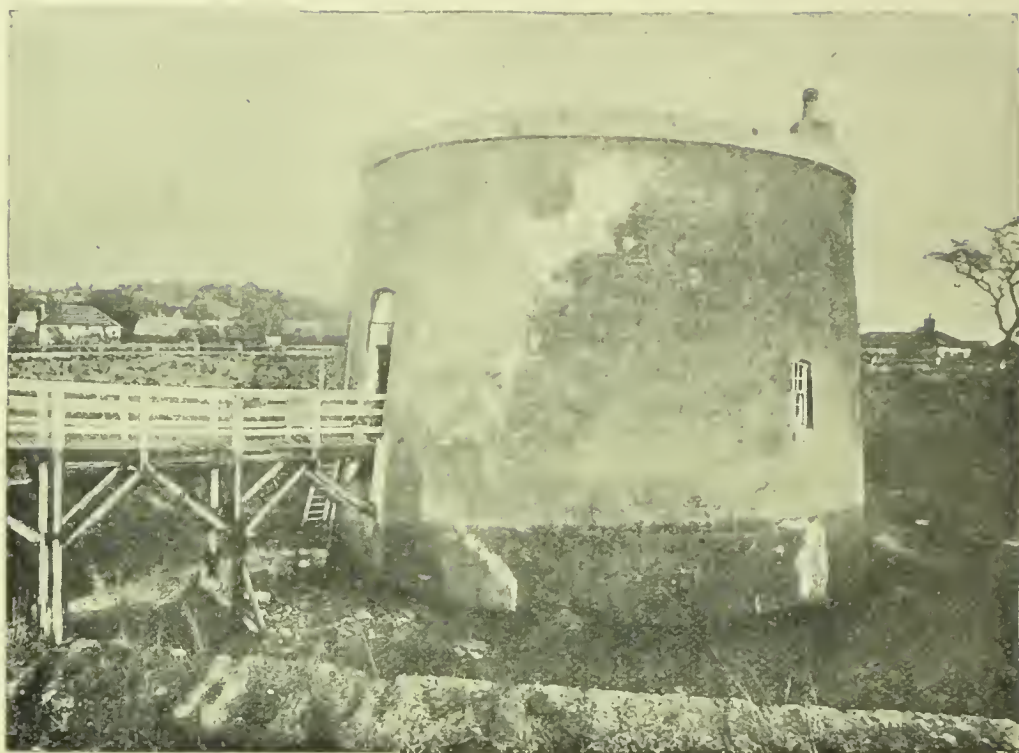
9. Naturally, there was the greatest opposition to the proposal in Ireland. Protestants and Catholics alike, peers and landowners, tradesmen, farmers, and peasants, all protested against it. Trade, they said, would be ruined; Ireland would be bound hand and foot to England; the last trace of Irish independence would disappear. The task of persuading the Irish Parliament to commit suicide was entrusted to Cornwallis, who was a well-disposed and honourable man, and hated the work he was now called upon to do—namely, to use every means, good or bad, to compel or induce the Irish members of both Houses to agree to the Union.

10. By removing from their offices those who would not agree to vote for the proposal, by bribing others with grants of money or peerages, by threats, and by every kind of force and fraud, the officers of the Crown now endeavoured to obtain a majority in favour of the Union. A large number of the boroughs which returned members of Parliament were owned by noblemen and great landholders, and the seats were frequently bought and sold. Lord Castlereagh, the Chief Secretary, agreed to buy out the owners of eighty-five of these seats for a sum approaching two millions, and

charge the amount to the Irish National Debt. Peerages, pensions, commissions in the army, offices, and judgeships were scattered with a lavish hand, and before long the Irish Parliament was ready to vote its own extinction.

11. At this juncture Henry Grattan came out of his retirement to play the part which Chatham had played in the House of Lords during the American War. Grattan was now a broken, old man, but he took his place in Parliament and made a last appeal for his unhappy country. His eloquence, however, was all in vain. The Bill of Union was introduced and was passed by a well-paid majority of sixty-five. It was approved by the Irish House of Lords, was signed by the king, and became law on January 1, 1801. Thus the Irish Parliament ceased to exist.

12. The most important provisions of this Act of Union were as follows:—The two kingdoms were henceforth to be one, and known as “the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.” One hundred Irish members were to be sent to the British House of Commons, and thirty-two peers (four of whom were to be Protestant bishops) were to be elected by all the Irish peers and sent to the House of Lords. The Irish Established Church was to be the State Church of Ireland. Two-seventeenths of the expenditure of the United Kingdom was to be raised by Ireland, and there was to be perfect equality of trade between the two countries. When the Irish Church was disestablished in 1868, Irish bishops ceased to sit in the House of Lords.



A MARTELLO TOWER (THE CINQUE PORT OF RYE IN THE BACKGROUND).
(Photo by Whiteman, Rye.)

29. NAPOLEON SUPREME.—I.

1. At various points along the coast of Great Britain, and especially along the seaboard of the English Channel, you may see the ruins of small circular forts known as “martello towers.” On the Sussex coast, for example, a broken chain of such towers extends from Eastbourne for some miles in the direction of St. Leonards. If you examine one of these forts, you will find that its walls are very thick, and that it was originally intended to mount one gun. “Obviously,” you will say, “these martello towers were erected for the purpose of resisting an invader.” Who was the invader?

2. In order to answer this question, we must once more

study the political relations between this country and France. In the last lesson you learned how the Union between Great Britain and Ireland was brought about. Pitt gained great credit for his achievement, but it was indirectly the cause of his resignation. As soon as the Act of Union received the royal assent, Pitt wished to proceed with that "eman-
cipation" of the Irish Catholics which was to compensate Ireland for the loss of its Parliament. The king, however, was obstinate in refusing to let him proceed, and Pitt resigned, after serving his monarch faithfully and well for seventeen years. Addington, the new Prime Minister, was a dull, vain man, quite incapable of guiding the ship of State through the troublous waters which were soon to beset it. A witty statesman of the day observed, "Pitt is to Addington as London is to Paddington," Paddington being then little more than an outlying village of the metropolis.

3. In 1802 Addington brought about the Peace of Amiens, which, as you already know, gave Britain but a meagre return for her nine years of warfare, her many naval triumphs, and her two hundred and seventy millions of national debt. "It was a Peace," said Sheridan, "that nobody would be proud of, but everybody would be glad of." Bonaparte, indeed, gained many advantages by the Peace, but he did not intend to maintain it a moment longer than it suited him. Before the ink on it was dry he was busy planning the establishment of a vast colonial empire, and aiming at the downfall of Britain.

4. The English press bitterly attacked him, and coarse and insulting caricatures of him were constantly appearing; the French exiles in England frequently plotted against him;

and he demanded the suppression of the hostile newspapers and the expulsion of the plotters, but the Government refused. Every day the relations between the two countries grew more and more strained, and the breaking-point was not far off.

5. Meanwhile Bonaparte had entered Switzerland and set up a republic, of which he was virtually the head. He had also entered Italy and formed out of several small states an Italian republic, of which he was president. These republics Britain refused to recognize. By the Treaty of Amiens, Britain had undertaken to give up the island of Malta. This she had not done, because Russia and Austria had not guaranteed its safety, as they were bound to do by the terms of the treaty.

6. Suspicious that the French would seize the island, Addington now flatly refused to evacuate it, whereupon Napoleon sent for the British Ambassador, and in the midst of a large assembly loudly declared that the British Cabinet was trying to drive him into war. He did not wish to fight, he said; but if once he drew the sword, it should never be sheathed until Britain was crushed. When the news of this interview reached England, the Cabinet began to prepare for war. Attempts were made to bring about peace, even at the eleventh hour, but all in vain, and on May 12, 1803, war was declared.

7. Napoleon at once seized the British travellers in France, some ten thousand in all, and put them in jail as prisoners of war. This unwarrantable act was the outcome of his anger at being forestalled. He had intended to keep the peace a year or two longer, until his navy should be

ready. Great Britain's declaration of war had taken him by surprise, and had forced him to alter his plans. Nothing daunted, he began the struggle by rousing his followers to indignation against "perfidious Albion," and by promising them the sack of London.

8. Hostilities began with the seizure of Hanover, and with the outbreak of a rebellion in Ireland, which was easily suppressed. Meanwhile Napoleon had forced Spain to join him, and was pushing on his preparations for the invasion of Great Britain. One hundred thousand men were marched to Boulogne, and every road by which the soldiers passed bore the signpost "To England." A huge flotilla of flat-bottomed boats was collected, and exercises in embarking and disembarking went on within sight of the white cliffs of Dover. "The Channel," said Napoleon, "is but a ditch, and any one can cross it who has but the courage to try." He meant to put his courage to the test as soon as the Channel was clear of the British fleet. From June 1803 to September 1805 his men were waiting the word of command to cross. It was never given.

9. The prospect of invasion roused every patriotic man in Great Britain. Volunteers flocked to the standards, and soon, out of a nation of fifteen million souls, including the people of Ireland, who were not allowed to volunteer, three hundred thousand men were in arms, besides one hundred and twenty thousand regular troops and seventy-eight thousand militia. The dockyards worked night and day, and before the end of the year one hundred and sixty-six new vessels had been added to the fleet. The fortresses were strengthened, and the martello towers, which we noticed



On Hostile Ground.

(From the picture by Thomas Davidson. By permission of Messrs. Eyre and Spottiswoode.)

Nelson landing at Copenhagen on the day after the battle in order to conclude an armistice with the Danes.

at the beginning of this lesson, were erected. Nevertheless, the year 1803 was one of alarm and terror, and with the entire concurrence of the nation Pitt returned to his old post to become the "pilot who weathered the storm." In the December of 1804 Napoleon attained the summit of his ambition—he crowned himself Emperor of the French.

10. Still the projected invasion hung fire, and now Napoleon devised a plan for securing the six hours' command of the Channel on which the success of his enterprise depended. His fleet was then in the harbour of Toulon, and was being watched by a British fleet, with Nelson in chief command for the first time. Napoleon ordered his ships to slip out of the harbour during stormy weather, pass Gibraltar, and join the Spanish fleet at Cadiz. Then they were to sail for the West Indies, in order to decoy Nelson away from Europe. Arrived at the West Indies, the French fleet was to put about and return with all speed for Brest, where an attack was to be made on the British squadron blockading that port while Nelson was far away. The defeat of the British squadron at Brest would clear the Channel, and then the grand invasion would take place.

11. The plan nearly succeeded. The French ships managed to slip out of Toulon, join the Spanish fleet at Cadiz, and sail for the West Indies. As soon as the news reached Nelson, he dashed across the Atlantic in hot pursuit, and went half round the world and back again before he caught up the enemy. The French admiral Villeneuve had thirty-five days' start, but Nelson arrived at Gibraltar only three days after the French fleet sighted Cape Finisterre. Here it found a British squadron under Admiral Calder waiting

for it. An indecisive battle took place; and though the result was considered in England as a failure, and almost a disgrace, it put an end to the invasion scheme. Villeneuve was obliged to put into Ferrol to refit, and meanwhile Nelson had arrived. The emperor's plan had failed, and Britain could breathe freely once more.

30. NAPOLEON SUPREME.—II.

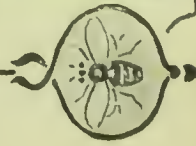
1. In disgust Napoleon broke up his camp at Boulogne, and rapidly marched his army across France into Germany, where the Austrians and Russians had formed a new league against him. Now began those triumphs which we saw commemorated on the Triumphal Arch in the Place du Carrousel. At Ulm, General Mack surrendered with thirty thousand men, and thus laid open the Austrian Empire to the invaders. While Napoleon was rejoicing in his victory terrible news reached him. The greatest sea fight in the history of the world had been fought. The combined fleets of France and Spain no longer existed, and the beginning of the end had arrived for the "Terror of Europe." Let me briefly describe the battle of Trafalgar.

2. Villeneuve, with thirty-three Franco-Spanish vessels, lay in Cadiz harbour, and outside was Nelson with twenty-seven ships. The French admiral had been stung to the quick by a bitter, taunting letter from the emperor, accusing him of cowardice. To vindicate his courage, Villeneuve gave the order to put to sea. On the morning of October 20, 1805, the fleets came within sight of each other, and line

of battle was formed. Nelson has been accused of having no plan of attack, and the battle of Trafalgar has been described as a "scramble." Better judges, however, say that his scheme of attack was carefully thought out and skilfully executed.

3. He advanced in two columns, and crashed into the enemy's line, thus breaking it, and destroying the ships in the centre before those on the wings could come to their relief. Strangely enough, this strategy was the counterpart of Napoleon's favourite mode of attack on land. He hurled his troops in columns at a far-extended line, and thus was in overwhelming force at a particular point. Having broken his enemy's line, he then proceeded to destroy its remnants. Napoleon never succeeded in this method of attack against British soldiers, but at sea Nelson used it in such a way that he never failed.

4. I need not tell the story of the fight in detail. When the cannonading ceased, and the great fight was over, all that was left of the Franco-Spanish fleet was a huddle of hulks rolling helplessly in the sea, with the British colours flying on the stumps of the masts, and a trail of beaten ships staggering towards Cadiz for safety. Of the thirty-three Franco-Spanish vessels, nineteen were taken and one was burned. The greatest blow to the British fleet was the death of the gallant Nelson in the hour of victory. With pardonable vanity he had arrayed himself in full uniform, and had worn his stars and orders. He was thus a mark for the enemy's sharpshooters, and fell with his backbone shot through. His last words were, "Now I am satisfied. Thank God I have done my duty."



NAPOLEON AND HIS GENERALS.

(From the picture by Meissonier, in the Wallace Collection. Photo by W. A. Mansell and Co.)

5. Britain's great naval hero was dead, but he had not spent his life's blood in vain. He had ensured for his country a century's command of the sea, during which she was to spread her empire far and wide, and develop her commerce to an extraordinary degree. He had struck the blow which brought Napoleon to his knees ten years later ; but, beyond and above all, he had given to his land the memory of a heroic sailor who made "Duty" the watchword of his career, and love of country the inspiration of his life.

6. In these later years we reverence Nelson, not only for his fame as a warrior and for the greatness of his victories, but because on the eve of the fight he prayed that humanity after victory might be the predominant feature of the British fleet, and because he flew at the onset of the fray his undying call to duty, and in the very moment of death rejoiced that he had done it.

7. Though hopelessly beaten at sea, Napoleon carried all before him on land. In the great battle of Austerlitz—perhaps the greatest of all his victories—he entirely overcame the Powers which dared to oppose him. Pitt was at Bath when he received the news. The story goes that he was in a picture gallery, when he heard the furious gallop of a horse. "That must be a courier," he exclaimed, "with news for me." When he had opened the packet, he said, "Heavy news indeed." In truth, it was heavy news. Pitt never recovered from the shock. He returned to his house at Putney a little more than a month after the great battle. As he entered his room, his eye fell on a map of Europe. "Roll up that map," he said ; "it will not be wanted these ten years." On January 23, 1806, he died in his forty-seventh year.

8. Napoleon's most dreaded enemy was dead, and now his star was everywhere in the ascendant. In October 1806 the Prussians were hopelessly defeated, and only the remnant of their army escaped to join their Russian allies. In February 1807 he marched one hundred thousand men into Poland, and met the combined Russian and Prussian army. On fields covered with snow a battle was fought during all the daylight hours of a winter day. The slaughter was horrible, and the battle was drawn. In the following May the armies met again, and this time the allies were defeated and driven from the field. A week later Napoleon and the Tsar met on a raft moored on the river Niemen, and made plans for the greatest scheme of robbery ever known to history : they agreed to divide Europe between them.

9. Napoleon was now supreme. In twelve years he had risen from an obscure officer of artillery to be master of all Europe. Britain alone of European nations stood against him. He could not attack her with the sword, but he could strike at that on which her life depended—her commerce. By means of what are known as the “Berlin Decrees” he forbade any Continental country to trade with Great Britain. No British ship was to be allowed to approach the shore of any European country, and no subject of Napoleon was to be permitted to trade with Great Britain. The vastest “boycott” ever contemplated was to be enforced.

10. The British replied by forbidding neutral states to trade with any countries which were not allowed to trade with Britain, and by blockading the ports of France and her allies. This meant that there was to be no British trade with the Continent at all. As you already know, Britain at

that time was the greatest manufacturing country of the world, and her colonies supplied most of the sugar, coffee, tea, pepper, and spices then used. These things Continental peoples would have in spite of all Napoleon's decrees. The consequence was that smuggling was rife, and that British manufactures and colonial products crept into all the Continental countries, and the inhabitants had to pay exorbitant prices for them.

11. The little kingdom of Portugal was almost the last European state which refused to join Napoleon; whereupon his armies overran the country and entered Lisbon. Then he forced the King of Spain to abdicate, and placed his brother Joseph on the throne. Thus the whole Peninsula passed into his power. These actions roused the nations to another struggle, and an insurrection broke out in Spain and Portugal which even Napoleon could not stamp out. The British Government eagerly seized the opportunity of waging war against Napoleon on land. Arms and money were sent to the Spaniards, and on August 1, 1808, an army was landed in Portugal. Thus began the Peninsular War.

31. THE BEGINNING OF THE END.

1. There is scarcely a town of any note in Great Britain which does not boast a memorial to the Duke of Wellington, the great British general who, in a later age, emulated the martial deeds of Marlborough, Wolfe, and Clive. Every visitor to Hyde Park, for example, sees the so-called Achilles statue which the ladies of England erected to the memory

of Wellington and his army in the year 1822. Edinburgh, Glasgow, Dublin, Liverpool, and a host of other cities and towns, have also suitable monuments ; and from their very prevalence you may learn how deep was the gratitude of the British people for the deliverance which Wellington wrought. In Apsley House at Hyde Park Corner and in the Hampshire estate of Strathfieldsaye you may see the nation's gifts to the general whom it delighted to honour.

2. To the end of his life Wellington was respected and esteemed by his countrymen, and a writer tells us that when he visited the Great Exhibition in 1851—that is, thirty-six years after his greatest achievement—all eyes were turned towards him, and “all other objects of interest sank to insignificance.” Let us learn something of the man who thus earned the gratitude of his fellow-countrymen, and was hailed by them as—

“Foremost captain of his time,
Rich in saving common sense,
And, as the greatest only are,
In his simplicity sublime.”

3. Arthur Wellesley, afterwards Duke of Wellington, was born in 1769, less than four months before Napoleon. His father was the Earl of Mornington, an Irish peer, and Dublin still shows the house, 24 Upper Merrion Street, where he was born. In 1787, when eighteen years of age, Wellesley became an ensign in the army, but at first was quite undistinguished, and was, indeed, considered dull, idle, and rather frivolous. Not until the year 1793, when he was appointed to the command of his regiment, did he

show that he had found the vocation in which he was to win such great renown.

4. In 1798 his eldest brother sailed for India as Governor-General, and Arthur accompanied him. Soon afterwards he was given a military command, and proved himself a most active and successful general. His greatest exploit in India was the victory at Assaye, where, with only four thousand five hundred Europeans, seventeen guns, and five thousand native horsemen, he inflicted a blow on the Mahratta power from which it never recovered. During the battle he had a horse shot under him, and another bayoneted. One of his staff wrote: "I never saw a man so cool and collected as he was the whole time." The victory at Assaye made him the hero of India.

5. In 1805 Wellesley was back in England, and for the next few years he was employed in various capacities. During the year after his return he became a member of Parliament, and was frequently consulted on military matters by the Ministry of the day. When in 1808 the British Government decided to attack Napoleon in Spain, Wellesley was given command of a force of some nine thousand men, and instructed to assist either the Spaniards or the Portuguese, according to his discretion. He sailed on the twelfth of July, and landing his men moved towards Lisbon. This was a bold step, for the French general, Junot, had been in occupation of the Portuguese capital since November.

6. On the twenty-first of August he defeated Junot on the hillside at Vimiera. Lisbon would have been captured and the whole French army destroyed had Wellesley been allowed to pursue. A superior officer, however, had now

arrived, and Wellesley was no longer first in command. Nevertheless, so decisive was the fight that Junot offered to leave Portugal altogether, provided he and his troops were permitted to return unmolested to France. This offer was accepted, greatly to the annoyance of the British people, who were sorely disappointed that the whole French army had not been captured.

7. Wellesley obtained leave to return to England. An inquiry was held into his conduct, which resulted in his favour, and he received the thanks of both Houses of Parliament. Meanwhile the British army, raised to thirty thousand men, had been put under the command of Sir John Moore. In the interval, the Spanish insurgents had won several battles, and had driven their new king, Joseph, from Madrid.

8. Napoleon now took the field in person. At the head of nearly four hundred thousand men he was pressing on rapidly to Madrid, when Sir John Moore, with a small British force, made a brilliant march into the heart of Spain, hoping to cut him off from France. Moore was far too weak to do this, and Napoleon, having scattered the Spanish insurgents, entered Madrid, and then sent an army of one hundred thousand men under Marshal Soult against the British, who had only a fourth of that number.

9. With great difficulty Moore made good his retreat to Corunna, where he expected the fleet to be waiting for him. The fleet, however, was not there, and in order to secure a safe embarkation he turned and defeated one wing of the French army (January 16, 1809). Like Wolfe and Nelson, Moore fell in the hour of victory. He was hastily buried on the ramparts of the town, and the well-

known verses of Charles Wolfe perpetuate his fame. The British troops, weary and worn and greatly reduced in numbers, were embarked, and the fleet returned to England. All that had been won so far was an insecure footing on the soil of Portugal.

10. While Napoleon's general, Soult, was pursuing Moore's troops into the rugged hills of Galicia, the Austrians thought the moment opportune for making another effort to shake off the French yoke. Napoleon was forced to leave Spain and hasten to Austria, where he displayed marvellous energy, and in one hundred days beat that unhappy country to the ground, and tore from her one-fifth of her territory.

11. Meanwhile, Wellesley had returned to Lisbon in command of the British army, and had begun the colossal work of rescuing the Peninsula from the grasp of France. The magnitude of the task might well have daunted the bravest of men. With never more than fifty thousand British soldiers, aided by Portuguese and Spanish levies, not always reliable in the face of the enemy, he was to oppose and defeat two hundred thousand of the finest troops in the world — a vast, well-equipped, skilfully-led, and proudly-confident army.

12. Wellesley's first success was gained at Oporto, which was occupied by Soult with ten thousand men. He drove the French in disorder from the city, and forced their general to destroy his guns, abandon his stores, and cross the mountainous frontier into Spain. The next success was at Talavera in April 1809. The battle was one of the hardest fought of the whole campaign, but in the end the French

were driven off with great loss. Wellesley's men were too exhausted to pursue, and the battle was practically fruitless. Nevertheless, it inflicted a severe blow on the French prestige. It was the first defeat sustained by a large French army since the advent of Napoleon.

13. The victory of Talavera won Wellesley a peerage; he became Viscount Wellington, and henceforward we may use the title by which he is best known. Wellington now found himself beset by a huge French army, and was obliged to retreat into Portugal. Taking advantage of his retreat, the French once more conquered Spain. Next year, being now free of the Austrian embarrassment, Napoleon sent Massena, the greatest of his marshals, to drive the British into the sea. Wellington, however, during the winter, had formed a great fortified camp to the north of Lisbon. Across the rugged country, for a distance of twenty-four miles, he drew three lines of fortifications from the Tagus to the sea.

14. In all he erected one hundred and twenty-six redoubts, and mounted them with four hundred and twenty-seven guns. The immensely strong position thus created could only be turned from the Tagus, and on this a large flotilla of gunboats was moored. After fighting the battle of Busaco in order to check the advancing French, Wellington, with masterly skill, drew all his forces behind the "lines of Torres Vedras," and with his back to the sea calmly waited developments. Though the "lines" were as vast and elaborate in their way as Hadrian's Wall, Massena had heard nothing of them until he came to a stand before the formidable barrier. All his attempts to find a joint in

Wellington's armour failed, and he was forced to withdraw from Portugal, having lost twenty thousand men by sword and famine. Wellington followed him, and perpetually harassed his retreat.

15. During the remainder of the year 1811 there was almost continual fighting, but at the end of it Wellington had made little real progress. In the month of May he fought a drawn battle with Massena at Fuentes d'Onoro; and in the south Beresford, Wellington's second in command, undertook the so-called siege of Badajoz. A battle was fought at the river Albuera, and was nearly lost owing to bad generalship and the sudden flight of the Spaniards. The Fusilier Brigade, however, saved the day by storming a precipitous hill and driving off the seven thousand French who held it. The tide was now on the turn. Napoleon was already withdrawing troops from Spain; relief was coming from an unexpected quarter.

16. The Tsar Alexander was by this time tired of submitting to Napoleon's mastery, and to show his defiance he opened his ports to trade with Britain. Napoleon thereupon declared war on him, and marched a vast army of six hundred thousand men towards the Russian frontier, which was crossed on June 23, 1812. The Russians did not attempt to fight this vast and splendidly-equipped host. They retreated before it, and, following Wellington's example in Portugal, laid waste the country as they fell back. In those thinly-peopled regions the French soon found themselves short of food, and thousands died of hunger. Napoleon's line of march was marked by the carcasses of dead horses and unburied men.



A WAR DISPATCH AT THE HOTEL DE VILLE.

(From the picture by A. C. Gow, R.A. By permission of the Corporation of Liverpool.)

17. Encouraged by the losses of their enemy, the Russians stood firm, and a great battle was fought some seventy miles from Moscow. One hundred thousand men lay dead and mangled on the field, and the advantage rested with the invaders. A week later, Napoleon's troops entered Moscow with shouts of delight. To their dismay, however, they found it abandoned—silent as a city of the dead. Still worse remained behind. The inhabitants had set fire to the place, and soon after the French marched in flames began to shoot up from a thousand different points.

18. The fire burned for five days, and the city lay in ruins. Then want of food and shelter compelled Napoleon to retreat. When he left Moscow his army had dwindled to about one hundred thousand men. The Cossacks hung upon their flanks and rear, and cut off all stragglers. Soon the snow began to fall, and the cruel Russian winter set in. Thousands perished daily of hunger and cold.

19. Starving and benumbed, the army soon became nothing but a disorderly rabble. As Napoleon approached the river Beresina, he learned that the Russians were waiting to dispute the passage. A battery of guns commanded the bridge, and as the French attempted to cross thousands were mowed down, and heaps of dead and wounded blocked the way. So terrible was the disaster that when the thaw came the Russians buried the bodies of twelve thousand Frenchmen found in the river. A miserable, crushed remnant of twenty thousand men was all that struggled back to Germany. This terrible blow led to a general rising of European Powers against Napoleon.

32. THE "HUNDRED DAYS."

1. To-day we will visit the little Mediterranean island of Elba. It is a rugged, mountainous land, about three-fifths of the size of our Isle of Wight, and only sixty miles in circumference. Only four miles of dazzling blue water separate it from the nearest point on the coast of the mainland of Italy. Perhaps you will be surprised to learn that in little more than two years after the burning of Moscow Napoleon, once the master of Europe, with the vastest armies the world has ever seen at his command, was forced for a brief space to lay down the sceptre of France and play at being king on this little island. "What a fall was there!" Naturally you ask, How did this vast change in the fortunes of Napoleon come about? Let us take up the thread of his story where we left it in the last lesson.

2. Leaving the miserable remnants of his Grand Army to struggle homewards, Napoleon rapidly crossed the plains of Lithuania, Poland, and Saxony, and reached France in safety, bearing the news of the terrible disaster which had overtaken him. The beaten and cowed nations of Europe immediately took heart of grace, and leagued themselves together for a final overthrow of the tyrant whom they hated and feared. Russia, Prussia, Austria, and Sweden allied their forces, and Napoleon found himself beset on all sides, and with no army to meet his foes.

3. After the first outburst of dismay, France rallied to him as of old, and gave him the new army for which he asked. The terrible waste of life during the stormy years since the Revolution had pressed heavily on his people, and now half-

the invaders; but numbers triumphed at last, and the allies entered Paris on March 31, 1814, where the fickle populace received them with shouts of joy. Such a revulsion of feeling had taken place that a mob attempted to pull down a statue of Napoleon from the column on which it stood. A little later, Wellington, who had now invaded France, fought and won near Toulouse the last battle of the Peninsular War.

7. Napoleon's chief supporters now advised him to accept the terms of the allies—namely, to abdicate the throne of France and Italy, and become emperor of the little island of Elba. He was to have a guard and a navy suited to the extent of his dominions, and a pension of £100,000 a year. At first the abandoned emperor foamed with rage and attempted suicide, but when the storm had passed he consented. As he proceeded southward to the coast he was greeted with loud cries of "Down with the tyrant," and only escaped the fury of the mob by disguising himself. Lewis the Eighteenth, younger brother of Lewis the Sixteenth, was placed on the French throne, and France was forced to restore almost all the conquests which she had made since 1792.

8. Napoleon lived for nine or ten months in his little empire of Elba, pretending to be reconciled to his fate. As a matter of fact he was watching affairs in France very closely, and was only biding his time. In 1814 ambassadors from nearly all the Powers assembled at Vienna to settle the affairs of Europe. There were constant wrangles, and at one time the tension was so acute that war seemed likely to break out again. Suddenly, on March 7, 1815, a

messenger arrived with news which immediately ended all their quarrels, and in the face of a new and alarming danger brought them shoulder to shoulder. What had happened?

9. The Bourbon king, Lewis the Eighteenth, had now ruled for ten months. He had proved himself selfish, revengeful, and stupid. He angered the army by resuming the white flag in place of the tricolour, by changing the numbers of the regiments, and by appointing exiles who had fought against France to important commands; he attempted to restore the old feudalism which had led to the Revolution; and in a variety of other ways irritated and disgusted his people. The country was on the verge of a revolution.

10. Napoleon from his island eyrie saw that his moment had come. He had increased his little army to a thousand men, and his navy to seven ships. His agents in France were secretly sounding the French generals, and everything promised favourably. While his principal subjects were dancing at a ball his troops were embarked, and Napoleon, slipping away from the gay throng, went on board one of his ships, and on March 1, 1815, landed at Cannes on the Riviera. This was the news which reached Vienna six days later, and fell like a bomb amidst the wrangling and greedy ministers of the Powers.

11. Napoleon made a triumphal progress to Paris, which he reached on the twentieth. The Bourbon Government melted away like snow before the summer sun. Everywhere Napoleon's old soldiers donned the cockade and flocked to his standards. Whole regiments deserted; the wonderful fascination which the emperor exercised upon his

followers once more reasserted itself. Marshal Ney, who had promised Lewis to bring back the invader in an iron cage, fell a victim to the charm of his old chief as soon as he met him. The civil population of France had no desire for war; but the army was with Napoleon almost to a man, eager to embark once more upon the career of glory which his presence promised.

12. Lewis and his friends fled the country, and Napoleon occupied the Tuileries. During the "hundred days" from the thirteenth of March to the twenty-second of June he displayed all his old energy and daring. By the thirteenth of June he had nearly two hundred thousand men available for war.

13. Meanwhile the Powers had not been idle. They bound themselves to raise a million armed men, and never to rest from their labours until Napoleon was finally crushed and removed from the throne of France. In a few months an overwhelming force of allies would be marshalled. In the meantime, the only troops available were those of the British and Prussian armies now in Belgium, and commanded by Wellington and Blücher respectively.

33. WATERLOO.

1. Now let us visit the most renowned battlefield in all the world. We cross from Dover to Ostend, and take the train for Brussels, the gay and handsome capital of Belgium. Here we take our places on a convenient electric tram, and in an hour or so we find ourselves at the village of Waterloo,

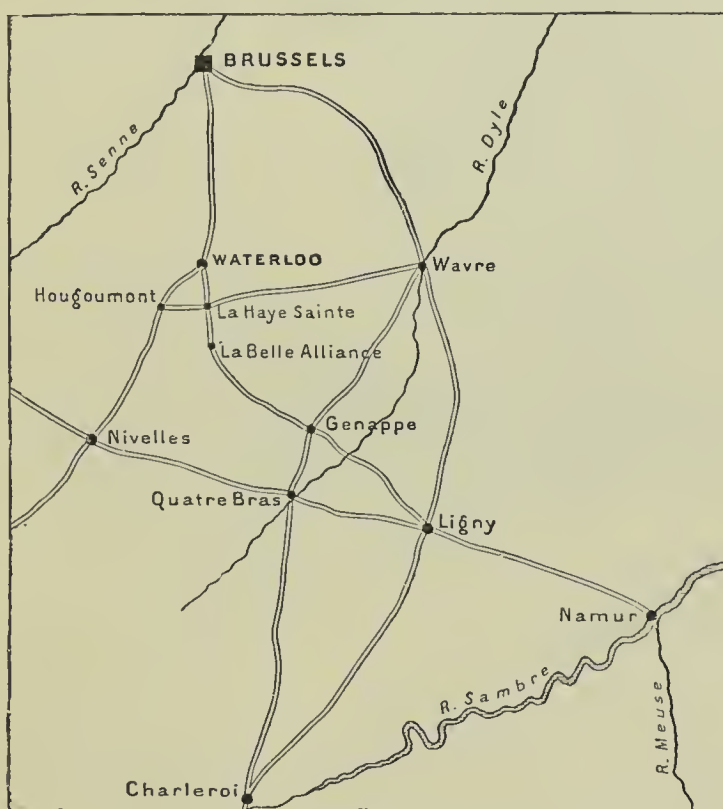
the headquarters of the Duke of Wellington during the great fight. Leaving Waterloo, we traverse a road bordered on both sides by houses, and after having walked a couple of miles we arrive at the village of Mont St. Jean. Here two roads meet, both of which cross the battlefield.

2. Now we push on beyond the cross-roads to an obelisk in memory of the Germans who fell in the battle. A quarter of a mile to the right rises the mound of the Belgian Lion. It is two hundred feet in height, and was thrown up on the spot where the Prince of Orange was wounded in the battle. Surmounting it is a lion made out of the metal of captured French cannon. We ascend the mound, and facing south find ourselves in the best position to survey the battlefield. Unfortunately, the levels of the ground have been much altered by the earth removed to form the mound. Still from our coign of vantage we may get a good general idea of the position occupied by both armies on June 18, 1815.

3. We are now on the ridge of a long chain of low hills with gentle slopes. On this ridge Wellington extended his first line of troops. The ridge, as you will observe, is narrow, so that the second line was enabled to occupy a sheltered position on the sloping ground behind us. One mile distant, across a shallow valley, is another line of hills. These were occupied by the French. Now notice on the main road, to our left, a farmhouse. This is La Haye Sainte, which was occupied by German troops, and protected the allied centre. Follow the road beyond the French position, and you will come to the farm of La Belle Alliance. During the greater part of the battle Napoleon

took up his station a little to the right of this house, where a French monument now stands. Were you to push on along this road for seven or eight miles you would come to Quatre Bras ("four arms"), from which place two roads lead to the river Sambre.

4. Now look along the road to our right front and observe the château of Hougomont, which was an old ruined place



even in 1815. This building, which still bears traces of the fearful scenes that took place about it, was on the right of the allied line, and formed the key to the position. Hougomont was strengthened by Wellington, and though continually assaulted was never captured. Had Napoleon once gained possession of it, the battle would probably



WELLINGTON REVISITING THE FIELD OF WATERLOO.

(From the picture by B. R. Haydon, R.A.)

have had quite a different ending. Now that we have surveyed the chief points of interest on the field, let us turn to the battle itself.

5. By the beginning of June Napoleon had concentrated one hundred and twenty thousand men on the Sambre at Charleroi, ready to advance when he should arrive to take command. Wellington's army was scattered in various places from Nivelles westward, while Blücher's was extended from the same place eastward. Wellington's plan was to unite his forces with those of Blücher at Quatre Bras, and block Napoleon's advance. Napoleon, however, was determined to prevent the allied generals from uniting their forces. His plan was to fall upon them before they could concentrate, and defeat them piecemeal.

6. When Blücher reached Ligny, with eighty thousand men, Napoleon met him, and a desperate battle ensued, in which the Prussian general suffered terrible loss, but, still undefeated, retreated in good order on Wavre, in order to join Wellington at Waterloo, according to a previous arrangement he had made with Wellington. Napoleon thought that the Prussians were retreating on the Rhine, and detached thirty-three thousand men under Grouchy to hang on their rear. Grouchy missed the Prussians, and his troops took no part in the great battle.

7. On the same day Ney, with twenty thousand men, appeared before Quatre Bras, where only ten thousand British and an equal force of Belgians had been able to assemble. The Belgians fled before the French cavalry, but the British infantry kept up a dogged resistance while corps after corps was hurried up. At the close of the day Ney saw that he

was outnumbered, and withdrew, while Wellington retreated to the line of heights upon which we are now gazing.

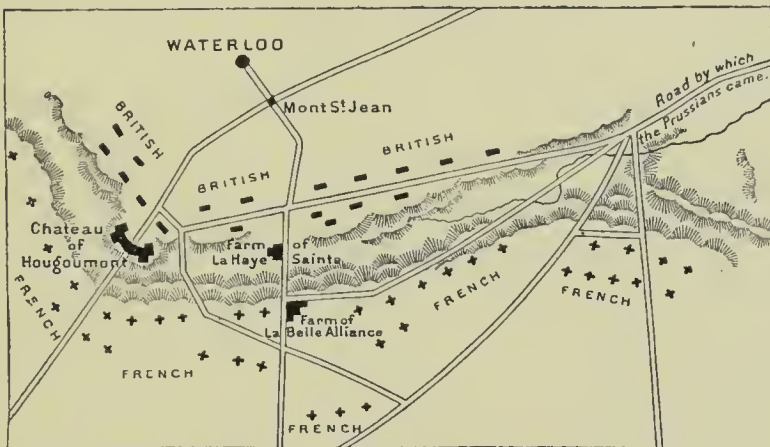
8. Napoleon now pushed on to measure swords with Wellington in person for the first time. On Sunday morning, the eighteenth of June, the two armies faced each other. As Napoleon looked across the valley and saw the British redcoats on the rising ground opposite, he cried, "I have them." He had good reason to believe that he would win. His forces numbered between seventy and eighty thousand men, and he was superior both in guns and in cavalry to his foes. Wellington had about sixty-seven thousand men; but his British troops were mainly raw recruits, and the rest of his forces were very mixed, and included the Belgians who had already fled before the French cavalry.

9. The preceding night had been wet and stormy, and when morning broke Napoleon considered the ground too heavy for cavalry. He therefore delayed the opening of the battle until between eleven and twelve in the forenoon. This delay was fatal. Time was most important to both commanders. Napoleon knew well that he must beat Wellington before Blücher could join him; Wellington, on the other hand, was determined to hold his ground to the last man, so as to give the Prussians time to come up in force and settle the issue of the day.

10. The battle began with a fierce attack on Hougoumont, but it was held right manfully by the British Guards; and though the French won the gardens and orchards, they could not drive the defenders from the buildings. Then Napoleon sent his heavy columns against the British left, but they were utterly routed. His third effort was

against the British centre, which he tried to break by heavy artillery fire and furious cavalry charges.

11. The British formed square, and though assailed for five hours, held fast. They seemed, said an onlooker, "rooted" to the earth. Every attempt to pierce them failed, until even the British privates saw the uselessness of the attempt, and cried, as Napoleon's squadrons charged them, "Here come those fools again." Every attempt to take the ridge was repulsed with terrible slaughter. At last, in the thick of the fighting, the cannon of the advancing Prussians were



heard, and Napoleon made one last desperate effort to break the British line.

12. La Haye Sainte was captured about six in the evening, and Napoleon's cannon were now so near that Wellington's centre was in dire danger. Blücher was rapidly drawing near, and already he was threatening the French right and rear. Like a desperate gambler, Napoleon now staked all on a charge of the Old Guard. A little after seven he gave the word, and six thousand of his veterans, led by Marshal Ney, were hurled at the long-tried British. As

the French rushed up the slope, the British Guards, who had been lying down behind the top of the ridge, sprang to their feet and poured a volley into the enemy. Their columns wavered, and our soldiers charged with the bayonet, hurling the enemy down the hill in utter confusion. Soon after eight o'clock the Prussians made their appearance on the scene, and speedily Napoleon found himself assailed on his flank by forty thousand men.

13. At this juncture, "on the ridge, near the Guards, his figure standing out amidst the smoke against the bright north-western sky, Wellington was seen to raise his hat with a noble gesture—the signal for the wasted line of heroes to sweep like a dark wave from their covered positions, and roll out their lines and columns over the plains. With a pealing cheer the whole line advanced just as the sun was sinking." In vain the French Guards rallied, only to be swept away by the fierce British charges. When darkness fell, the whole French army was in flight. The Prussians went in hot pursuit, and before long the proud French army of the morning was almost annihilated. Wellington and Blücher had lost twenty-two thousand men. The French loss will never be known.

14. The battle was decisive; the long struggle was at an end; and Napoleon's star had set. He put spurs to his horse, and rode hard through the midsummer night to escape capture. Fearing death at the hands of the Prussians, he surrendered himself to the captain of the British man-of-war *Bellerophon*. The British Government banished him to the lonely isle of St. Helena, where he languished in captivity until his death in 1821.

34. A PARLIAMENTARY ELECTION.

1. Most of the boys and girls who read this book can remember a parliamentary polling day. Probably they specially remember it because it was a holiday, the school being closed, as it was needed for a polling station. Let us take our stand before the school on a polling day, and notice what is going on. At the gate is a policeman, and here and there you see knots of men with red or blue ribbons in their buttonholes. In the street are sandwich-men carrying boards with the injunction "VOTE FOR SMITH" or "VOTE FOR JONES" as the case may be, while on every hoarding there are posters setting forth the special claims of the rival candidates.

2. Every now and then a carriage or a motor car pulls up at the gate and deposits a man or a woman, who enters the school, stays there for a few minutes, and then reappears and goes away. You will notice that the voters are all sorts and conditions of people. Clergymen, doctors, lawyers, business men, shopkeepers, and working men and women, rich and poor, high and low, all come to record their votes. What is going on inside?

3. Put on the invisible cloak of the fairies and come with me. I enter a classroom and find the presiding officer and his clerk sitting at a table with a large tin box before them. I go up to the table and say that my name is Thomas Brown, and that I live at 28 Green Street. The clerk looks at the roll of electors, finds my name, ticks it off, and calls out my electoral number—2,837. The presiding officer writes the number 2,837 on the left-hand part or

counterfoil of the book before him. Then he tears off the right-hand portion of the leaf, and having stamped it on the back, hands it to me.

4. I next take this voting paper to one of the three or four little stalls which have been set up at the other side of the room. Each stall has a desk, and a pencil fastened to it by a piece of string. I look at my paper and read,—

1	JONES (William Henry Jones, 35 High Street, Coketown, Colliery Proprietor.)	
2	SMITH (John Edward Smith, 67 Brook Street, London, Barrister-at-law.)	

I take up the pencil and put a cross in the vacant space opposite to the name of the man I am voting for; only this and nothing more. If I add any other mark whatever, my vote will be rejected. Then I fold up the voting paper, and after exhibiting the stamp on the back to the presiding officer, drop the paper into the tin box through the slit at the top, and take my leave. How simple it all seems! How trifling it appears! Nevertheless, I have been exercising the highest privilege of a citizen in a modern state. I have availed myself of a political right which men who love liberty esteem above every other.

5. What have I actually been doing? I have been choosing my representative to the House of Commons. I have been giving my voice for the man whose principles I wish to see adopted in the government of the country. I have been giving him my authority to levy taxes, to

vote national money, to watch over expenditure, and to make laws for me. To-night at eight o'clock the tin box in which I have deposited my vote will be taken, with numbers of others from all parts of the constituency to the town hall, where the boxes will be opened and the votes counted. The candidate who has the larger number of papers with the cross opposite to his name will be declared by the proper officer to be "elected."

6. Now that you understand the method of electing a member of Parliament, let us learn how the great bulk of people in this country obtained their right to vote. We must go back to the reign of William the Fourth, who came to the throne in 1830 as successor to George the Fourth, son of George the Third. What was the condition of parliamentary representation in his time? The voters in most of the English boroughs were a handful of men who either sold their votes or were so much under the influence of a neighbouring landlord that they voted precisely as he ordered them to do. Some of the boroughs were controlled by the Crown, and the few electors in them obediently returned the man recommended to them by the sovereign. The great majority of the seats, however, were freely bought and sold. The town of Sudbury, for example, openly advertised itself for sale to the highest bidder.

7. Two out of three of the members of Parliament were appointed by peers or other powerful persons. In 1793 three hundred and fifty-four out of the five hundred and fifty-eight members of Parliament were really returned by the Government and by one hundred and ninety-seven persons, most of whom were peers. Seventy members were

returned by thirty-five places where there were scarcely any voters at all.

8. Such was the state of things when Lord John Russell, in March 1831, introduced a Reform Bill, and carried it by the narrow majority of one. There was a general election two months later, and the reformers returned with a majority of one hundred and thirty-six. Then a new Bill was introduced by Russell, and was carried by a majority of one hundred and nine. The House of Lords, however, threw it out on October 8, 1831, by a majority of forty-one.

9. The anger of the disappointed people was unbounded. Great mass meetings were held, and there were riots all over the country. Perhaps at no time has there been greater political excitement in England. At Bristol, where the disturbances lasted for several days, many of the public buildings were destroyed, and about one hundred persons were killed or wounded. Nottingham Castle, the residence of the Duke of Newcastle, was burned, and almost everywhere disturbances took place. The Lords were alarmed, and when the Bill was presented to them for the third time they were afraid to reject it, so they cut out a number of clauses, and having almost destroyed its effect, let it pass its second reading.

10. The nation was now roused to the highest pitch of excitement, and everywhere arose the cry, "The Bill, the whole Bill, and nothing but the Bill." The country seemed to be face to face with a violent revolution. At the king's command, the Duke of Wellington tried to form a Ministry; but he shrank from the horrors of civil war, and resigned the hopeless task. The king was then obliged to recall his old ministers, and to promise to create enough new peers to

pass the Bill. Then the peers, at the king's special request, gave way, and the Bill was passed amidst immense rejoicing.

11. The Reform Act—the great Charter of 1832—did away with the “rotten boroughs,” and for the first time gave votes to the middle classes, to the shopkeepers and well-paid artisans in the towns, and to the farmers and yeomen in the country. It did not give votes to the working classes, though it was a step in that direction. Its real effect was seen when, sixteen years later, Britain remained unshaken while thrones and governments were toppling down all over Europe. Those who advocated the wider co-operation of the people in the business of government had clearly spoken the truth when they said that reform did not mean revolution, but was a guarantee against sudden and violent changes.

12. For thirty years no change was made in the franchise. In 1867, however, a Reform Act was passed which gave a vote to every man who paid rates in a borough, and extended the franchise in the counties. Even lodgers, if they paid an annual rent of £10 and had resided in the same lodgings for a whole year, became entitled to a vote. In 1872 the Ballot Act, which was a measure for making voting secret, was passed into law. You have already seen how it works in your imaginary visit to the polling booth.

13. In 1885 the agricultural labourer in the counties received a vote on the same conditions as the artisan in the towns, and in 1918 the franchise was extended and granted to women over thirty years of age. In this way nearly every man and many women have a voice in the election of members of Parliament.

35. THEN AND NOW.

1. To-day we will take a walk through the streets of your town, and, from what we see and from what I tell you, try to realize what an enormous change has taken place in almost all the conditions of life since the year 1837, when William the Fourth died and Queen Victoria came to the throne. Here, for instance, is the post office. From this place, for a shilling, you may flash by electric telegraph a brief message of twelve words to any town in the kingdom. In 1837 no such convenience existed. The telegraph had only just ceased to be a toy ; four years later, at the birth of the Prince of Wales, afterwards Edward the Seventh, it was a novelty and a great luxury. In our day it is an absolute necessity of commercial and social life.

2. From the post office, too, you may send a similar telegraphic message to any country in the world by means of the submarine cables which now lie on the floors of all the oceans and most of the seas. In 1837 there was no such thing as a submarine telegraph cable ; and, of course, the possibility of the Marconi system, by means of which messages are now flashed across the Atlantic without the use of a cable or wire at all, had never entered into any man's mind.

3. Purchase a three-halfpenny stamp at the counter. With it you may send a letter not exceeding two ounces in weight to any part of the British Isles, or a letter not exceeding an ounce in weight to Canada, Egypt, India, the Cape of Good Hope, or Australia. Until 1919 you could have done this for a penny. Before 1837 a letter sometimes

took as long as ten hours to travel from Charing Cross to Hampstead, a distance of four miles, at a cost which might amount to one shilling and eightpence, and could not be less than fourpence. Not until the year 1840 was penny postage introduced.

4. As you leave the post office and step again into the street an electric car runs by. For a penny or two it will transport you rapidly from one part of the town to another. When Queen Victoria came to the throne there were no omnibuses, no tramcars, no district railways, no electric cars, no "Tubes," no motor cars. Most of the people who lived in a suburb had to walk into town. Probably one stage-coach a day made the journey; but its accommodation was very limited, and the fares were so high that only rich people could afford to travel by it.

5. Now look up at the lofty standards carrying the electric arc lamps which illuminate the streets at night. In 1837 the electric light, such as we have it to-day, was absolutely unknown, and scientific men had scarcely begun to dream of using electricity as an illuminant and motive power. The roads then were wretchedly paved, and were lighted by flickering oil-lamps, which only served to make darkness more visible. Yonder is a telephone station. For a few pence you may actually converse with a person at a considerable distance and conduct your business by word of mouth. I need not tell you that the telephone is quite a recent invention.

6. Here is a Council school—a large, handsome, airy place, filled with the best of apparatus and staffed by skilled teachers. Schools of this kind are to be found all over the



The Coronation of Queen Victoria.

(By Sir George Hayter. After the picture in the Royal Collection.)

land. Every child must be taught, and education in the publicly-supported schools is free. Had you lived in the year 1837 you would have looked in vain for such a school. More than half the people were ignorant of reading and writing, and nobody was compelled to attend school. The Lancashire town of Oldham, for example, had not a single day school. In the manufacturing districts nearly half the men and more than half the women could not write their names. Now it would be difficult to find a person who cannot write, and impossible to find one who would not be ashamed of such a disability.

7. A boy is crying the evening papers. You buy one for a penny ; before the Great War it was only a halfpenny. It consists of eight large pages, some of them filled with advertisements, the others containing the latest news, collected by "wireless," cablegram, telegram, telephone, and letter from every part of the world. In the year 1837 there was no such thing as a penny daily paper. The cheapest newspaper cost about fivepence a copy, and was therefore a luxury of the well-to-do. The news was, of course, what we should call stale, and illustrations rarely if ever appeared. Now, illustrations may actually be telegraphed.

8. Here is a photographer's shop. The art of photography was not discovered until Queen Victoria had been two years on the throne, and the method of making printing blocks from photographs was not devised until quite recent years. Our ancestors had to rely for their portraits on the expensive and slow art of the painter, or on rough representations cut out of black paper and gummed on to white cardboard. Now photography is so common and so simple that

it has become a popular hobby. The most recent developments of the art consist in the production of photographs in colour ; X-ray photography, by means of which photographs of unseen objects, such as the bones beneath the skin, may be made ; and the cinematograph, which brings a series of instantaneous photographs before the eye in rapid succession, and thus gives the illusion of movement. Add the gramophone, and future generations will be enabled, not only to see exactly how we lived, moved, and had our being, but also to hear our voices.

9. Here is the fire-engine station, with its motor-engines capable of pumping a steady stream of water on the highest buildings in the town. Hand-engines of a primitive type alone existed in 1837. Yonder is the town hall, the headquarters of the town's government. Every householder in the place, man and woman alike, has a vote for the election of the councillors who are responsible for the good government of the town. Three years before Queen Victoria came to the throne the mass of the townsfolk had little or no share in the management of local affairs. The government of the town was in the hands of a small body of freemen. By the Municipal Corporations Act of 1835 all town councils were made elective, and every ratepaying inhabitant became a municipal voter.

10. That grim building on the outskirts of the town is the prison. Within it are imprisoned the miserable offenders who have broken the laws, and have been sentenced by a judge. They are confined in cells, and are given work to do, while their diet is extremely frugal ; but the place itself is scrupulously clean, well ventilated, and well lighted,

and the punishment, though sufficient to bring home to the offender a sense of his guilt, is neither harsh nor cruel.

11. A very different state of things existed at the beginning of the nineteenth century. Judges then believed that a criminal could never be won from his wicked ways. Consequently the penalty of death was inflicted for such offences as sheep-stealing, shooting rabbits, cutting down cherry-trees, or purloining any article over five shillings in value. The prison accommodation was extremely bad; the cells in which the prisoners lived were small, dark, damp, and swarming with vermin. A foul disease, known as jail fever, always lurked in these horrible places, and sometimes swept off the unhappy captives.

12. Now let us visit the town hospital, where poor people suffering from disease are carefully tended in buildings specially erected for the purpose. Skilled doctors and nurses devote themselves to the patients, and every resource of the age is utilized on their behalf. When Queen Victoria came to the throne such hospitals as then existed were little better than plague spots, from which pestilence and death were spread abroad. Since 1837 man has learned much about his own body, and has discovered many new methods of soothing its pains and healing its diseases. Perhaps the greatest discovery in all medical history is that of chloroform, which came into use in this country about the year 1847.

13. Now let us visit one of the factories in the town and notice what remarkable changes have taken place in the condition of the workers since the year when Queen Victoria came to the throne. The factory which we visit is a large,

clean, well-lighted, and well-ventilated building, and is occupied by many workers—men and women—who are adequately paid, and whose comfort and well-being are carefully provided for. Every year the State gives more and more attention to the conditions of labour in factories, and every year employers do more and more to make their workers comfortable, and therefore more efficient.

14. Now what was the state of things in our factories and workshops in the year 1837? The mills of Lancashire and Yorkshire were little better than pestilent dens. Wagon loads of pauper boys and girls were sent from the London workhouses to be bound apprentices to the mill-masters of Lancashire and Yorkshire. Many of them were set to work at seven, or even at six years of age, and their hours of labour were sometimes thirteen or fourteen daily. Women and children also laboured in coal pits, into which they are now forbidden to descend as workers. They had to crawl on hands and knees, and drag little wagons after them by a chain fastened round their waists. Children of six were frequently employed thus from fourteen to sixteen hours a day. It is impossible to tell the horrors among which they lived. Many of the poor wretches never saw the light of day for weeks together.

15. For fourteen long years men such as Lord Shaftesbury strove to prevent women and children from working more than ten hours a day. Not until 1847 was a Bill passed for the purpose. The first Factory Act, which did much to improve the surroundings of work-people, and to lessen the dangers to which they had been so long exposed, was passed in 1842, and made more effective in 1857. Recent

Factory Acts, and the co-operation of employers, have made our factories and workshops palaces compared with what they were in 1837.

16. Now let us pass into a street tenanted by workmen. Much remains to be done before the housing of our people is as good as it ought to be. Nevertheless, vast improvements have taken place since the early years of Queen Victoria's reign. In the year 1837 workmen's houses were too often dens of filth, without ventilation or drainage. A working man could not then obtain healthy and comfortable accommodation except at a rent far beyond his means. Now we have begun to recognize that the health of our people is a great national asset. Parliament has enabled Town and County Councils to pull down "rookeries" and to erect workmen's model dwellings in their place.

17. Let us suppose that we are living in a suburb of your town in the year 1837. The first sound we should hear in the early morning would be the "click, click" of a piece of flint striking on a bar of steel held over a tinder-box. This sound might continue for some eight or ten minutes before the sparks ignited the tinder. Then the tinder would be blown upon until it was hot enough to set fire to a thin strip of wood tipped with yellow brimstone. When this match was lighted, the whole room would be filled with the unpleasant fumes of burning sulphur. Lucifer matches were just being sold in the streets as a great curiosity. They were not cheap enough, however, to supersede the laborious flint and steel, which continued in ordinary use for some years after Queen Victoria began to reign.

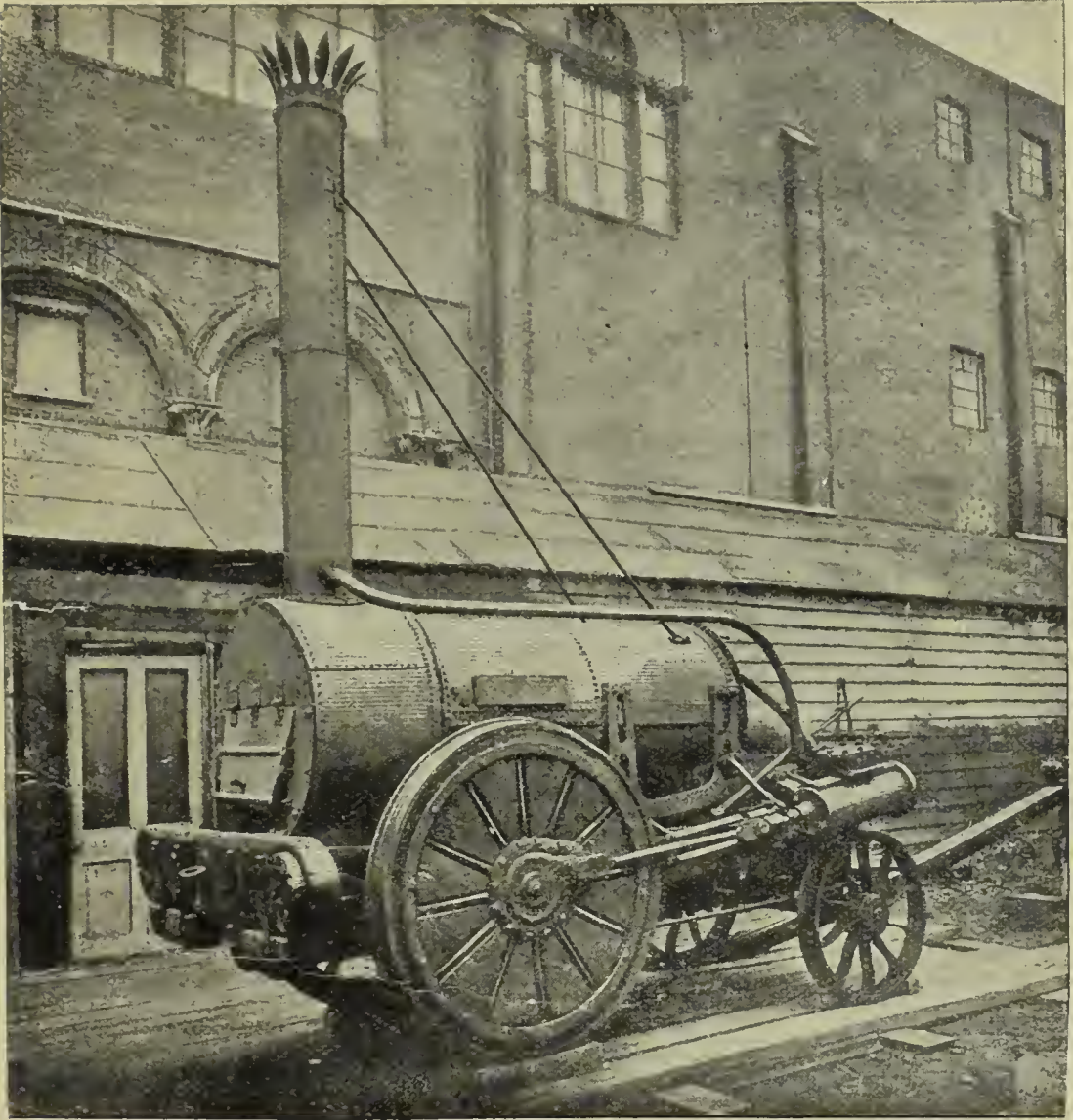
18. Before breakfast could be prepared, water would have

to be fetched from the public well, or purchased from the water-carriers, who went round retailing it from house to house. A plentiful supply of pure water, such as we have to-day in almost every dwelling, was then unknown. On the breakfast-table there would be nothing but the products of the immediate neighbourhood. There would be no tea or coffee to drink, and white bread would be considered a rare delicacy. When evening closed in, the houses would be lighted with tallow-candles which frequently needed snuffing, or with sperm-oil lamps which gave out a most objectionable smell. Paraffin was not then discovered, and coal-gas was only passing out of the experimental stage. Such was life in the "good old days" of the year 1837.

36. THE COMING OF RAILWAYS AND STEAM NAVIGATION.

1. Come with me to the South Kensington Museum and let me show you one of the most interesting objects in the whole collection. Here it is—a small railway engine, known as "The Rocket." Do not smile at this clumsy little engine with its tall flue and its wooden-rimmed wheels, for it is the forerunner of all the splendid locomotives now existing. Its inventor was George Stephenson, who is rightly regarded as one of the world's greatest benefactors.

2. As a boy he was extremely ingenious, and could turn his hand to almost anything, from repairing a clock to cobbling a pair of boots. In course of time he became fireman at the Wylam Colliery, eight miles from Newcastle,



THE ROCKET.

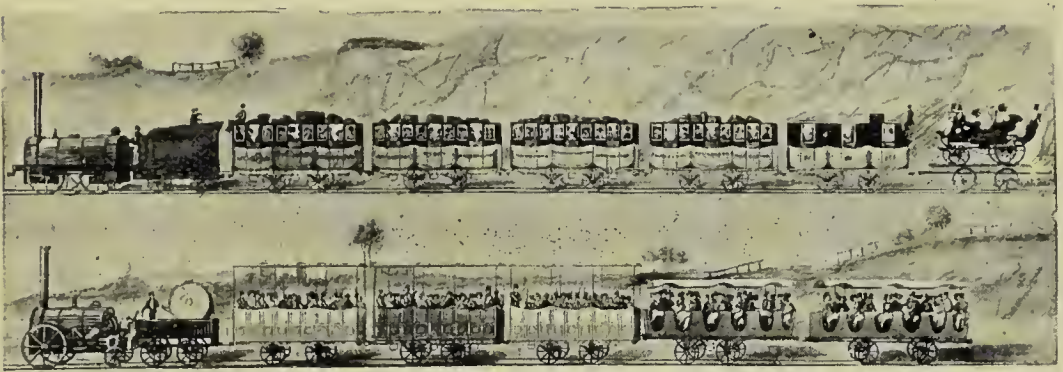
and assisted in working the colliery engine. While in this post he learned to read and write at a night school. In 1808, when he was twenty-seven years of age, he contracted with two other men to work the engines at the Killingworth pit. While thus engaged, he took his engine to pieces every Saturday in order that he might become

a thorough master of its construction. Four years later he was appointed engine-wright to the colliery.

3. About the year 1811 Stephenson began to turn his attention to steam locomotion. At this time a locomotive was in use at a colliery near Leeds, where it ran on rack rails, and hauled after it loaded coal wagons. The proprietor of the Wylam Colliery had two copies of this locomotive made; but they were failures, as also was an engine of another design. George Stephenson watched these experiments with great interest, and in 1813 begged the proprietors of his own colliery to let him build an engine suitable for haulage. He was given a money grant, and immediately set about the work. In July 1814 the engine, which he called "My Lord," was completed, and was found capable of drawing a load of thirty tons up an incline of 1 in 450 at four miles an hour. Shortly afterwards Stephenson greatly improved his engine, and added to it a steam blast.

4. The year 1829 is famous in the history of railways. In that year Stephenson made the first high-speed locomotive. The directors of the newly-planned Liverpool and Manchester Railway were doubtful as to what form of traction they should adopt. In order to settle the question, they offered a £500 prize for the locomotive which should best combine lightness, power, and speed. Stephenson had already built engines for the Stockton and Darlington Railway, which was opened on September 27, 1825. On a pedestal at Darlington Station you may see the first locomotive which he built for this line. It weighed eight tons, and attained a speed of from twelve to sixteen miles an hour.

5. Stephenson now determined to compete for the £500 offered by the directors of the Liverpool and Manchester Railway, and his engine, "The Rocket," the very engine which I have brought you to see, won the prize. It succeeded in drawing a coach with thirty passengers over a special track at a rate of thirty miles an hour. The modern seventy-five-ton express passenger-engine, which dashes along at a speed of more than a mile a minute, does not differ greatly in principle from Stephenson's pioneer engine.



TRAVELLING ON THE LIVERPOOL AND MANCHESTER RAILWAY,
OPENED SEPTEMBER 16, 1830.

The upper picture shows a first-class train with mails, the lower a second-class passenger train.

6. When Queen Victoria began to reign, the Liverpool and Manchester Railway had been working for six years as an experiment. During those six years active-minded men were discussing the new idea in a cautious way. The success of railways was thought to be doubtful, and few were willing to invest money in them. People still travelled as their grandfathers and great-grandfathers had done, and were satisfied if the roads were good, and the coach was not attacked by highwaymen. In 1836, however, trade became more prosperous, and many were willing to risk a little in

the new venture. In that year thirty-five Acts of Parliament were passed to allow nine hundred and ninety-four miles of railway to be made.

7. The year 1836 saw the real beginning of the new movement. In the following year more active help was forthcoming to push the new schemes, and then those who objected to railways began a vigorous opposition. Great landowners refused to give land for the railroads, and those interested in the breeding of horses strongly opposed them, from a fear that their business would disappear. Their fears, however, proved groundless, for horses were used far more than they were before the coming of railways.

8. Ignorant opposition soon gave way, and railways were now established. From 1830 to 1837 they had been on trial, but now they had passed out of the stage of experiment into that of active working and development. Railway connection was made between the most important towns of the country, and the people adapted themselves to the new mode of locomotion. The mails were carried by railway, and it was remarked with astonishment that a man could depend upon reaching Liverpool ten hours after leaving London, and that letters from London were received in Edinburgh in thirty-one hours, instead of fifty-five as formerly. Nowadays the journey between the two capitals can be performed by an express train in less than eight hours.

9. The opening of Queen Victoria's reign also marked a new epoch in the history of transport by sea. Two great changes came about in shipbuilding during her reign: firstly, ships were for the most part made of iron or steel;

and secondly, they were driven by steam. These two facts go far to explain the enormous increase in British foreign trade and the development of British sea-power which took place during her long reign.

10. Both these changes greatly favoured Great Britain as a competitor with other nations for the carrying-trade of the world. Possessing an abundance of coal and iron, Great Britain was able to build steamships both cheaply and rapidly. Already the chief sea Power, she had the great advantage of starting first in the race under the new conditions. The enormous increase of our manufactures naturally gave an impetus to shipbuilding. Britain had become the workshop of the world, and she needed more and more ships every year to convey her cottons and woollens, her hardware and machinery, to almost every country on the earth.

11. In 1819 the Atlantic was first crossed by a steamer, the *Savannah*, which relied almost as much upon her sails as upon her engines. The successful transatlantic voyages of the *Great Western* and the *Sirius* in 1838 set at rest many of the doubts which prevailed, and reduced the time occupied in a voyage between the Old World and the New to half its former length. In 1839 the celebrated "Cunard Steamship Company" was established, and in the next year a mail service was begun.

12. The first "Cunard" fleet consisted of wooden paddle-steamers. In 1843 the screw-propeller was shown to be far better adapted to ocean-going steamers than the earlier paddle-wheels. The use of iron for the construction of ships' hulls was at first bitterly opposed, but Brunel's re-

markable iron ship the *Great Britain* proved a success, and after 1844 shipbuilders no longer hesitated to build with iron. Inventions and improvements rapidly followed one another, and the Clyde and the Tyne laid the foundations of their present fame as centres of iron shipbuilding. The most recent development is the use of turbines in place of the ordinary marine engines. By means of the turbine such ocean monsters as the *Lusitania* and the *Mauretania*, each of forty thousand tons, have crossed the Atlantic at an average speed of nearly twenty-five knots per hour.

13. Yet, in spite of all this progress, there was still much to be done before the British merchant service could be in a sound and healthy state. The old Navigation Laws, which had been passed in the days of Charles the Second, were still in force. The object of these laws was to encourage English shipping at the expense of the Dutch. They enacted that no goods of any kind might be imported from Asia, Africa, America, and from Russia, Turkey, and certain other European countries, except in British vessels, or vessels belonging to the countries from which the goods were imported. The laws remained in force, and were but little changed, though all fears of Dutch competition had long ceased to exist.

14. The Navigation Laws gave British ships almost a monopoly of ocean carriage, and British seamen, fearing no competition, gradually became both stupid and lazy. In 1832 an official report showed that our merchant service was in a bad condition; that our men lacked skill and education; and that the Navigation Laws were a real disadvantage to our trade. In consequence of this report the

Navigation Laws were modified ; but it was not until 1849 that they were finally repealed, amidst much public misgiving and fear of disaster.

15. A few years later the discovery of gold in Australia, and the rapid development of our colonies, gave further encouragement to our shipping. After the Crimean War the Government consented to give up certain rights which it had persisted in enforcing in time of war—namely, the right to seize an enemy's goods though conveyed in a neutral vessel, and the right to search neutral merchant ships for that purpose. Foreign Powers very much disliked the exercise of this right of search, and retaliated by means of privateers, which did great damage to our shipping. In return for the surrender of our rights, privateering was abolished by all the great Powers.

16. Soon afterwards, the outbreak of the American Civil War threw a large portion of the American trade into British hands, and between the years 1860 and 1865 our shipping was doubled, while the American shipping fell off greatly. This vast increase in our carrying-trade made Parliament give to our merchant service some of the attention which it had long required. Steps were taken by the Board of Trade to give the officers of our merchant navy a better education, an official inspection of ships was established, and laws were passed to secure the safety and health of all who "go down to the sea in ships." From time to time various Acts of Parliament have been passed against overloading and undermanning ships, and in various ways the merchant service has been greatly improved.

you to notice that every ounce of tobacco which comes off the ship is taken into the tall warehouse hard by, where it is carefully weighed by custom-house officers and stored. The warehouses are in the hands of the custom-house officers, who keep the keys, and do not permit any tobacco to be removed until certain sums of money have been paid to the proper authority.

3. For every pound of tobacco taken away from the warehouse to be sold the merchant who imports the tobacco must pay to the Government a sum varying from 8s. to 15s. This sum so levied is called a custom or an import duty. Of course, the consumer of the tobacco really pays the duty, for the importer charges him not only the cost and the freight of the tobacco, and the profit which he makes by his trading, but also the amount of the duty which he has already paid to the Government.

4. Now let us visit another dock. Here we see a ship which has just arrived from Canada laden with wheat. She takes up her berth close to a great building of many stories, from which suction pipes are put into her hold. The machinery begins to work, and in a comparatively short time every grain of wheat has been transferred from the ship to the warehouse, where it is graded and stored. When it is sold, carts come to the building; they are loaded with bags of wheat, and off they go to the mills without let or hindrance. I want you to notice that there is not a single custom-house officer about the place, and that the Government does not tax the importer of wheat a single penny. The consumer gets it at its original cost, *plus* the freight and the profit which the importer makes on the transaction.

5. Most of the actual necessities of life and nearly all the raw materials for our factories come into this country duty free. The articles on which duties are levied are, for the most part, articles of luxury, such as wines, spirits, beer, and tobacco, though such things as coffee, chicory, dried fruits, sugar, and tea, which may now be considered necessities, also pay a duty. In the year 1922-3 the Government received from its customs—that is, its import duties—the colossal sum of one hundred and twenty-three millions, or about one-eighth of the total national income.

6. Now look again at the device on page 246. You will observe that the period of starvation is said to have lasted from 1815-43. In 1837, as you already know, trade was depressed, and thousands were in want of employment. There had been a succession of bad harvests, and the price of wheat was up to seventy shillings a quarter. This meant that the poor could not afford to buy bread, and many of them perished. Now, at this time of scarcity, there was abundance of wheat in Russia and elsewhere ready to come into the country and fill the mouths of the hungry people. Why, you ask, was it not imported?

7. Let me explain. Certain laws called Corn Laws were in force. Their object was to make the growing of wheat profitable to the British farmer. Many statesmen thought that if cheap foreign wheat were admitted duty free, it would be sold at such a price that British farmers could not compete with it, and therefore would be ruined. Foreign wheat coming into the country had therefore to pay a duty just as tobacco has now; and this duty, added to the cost of the wheat and its freight, prevented the importer from selling

it in Britain at a lower price than home-grown wheat. Whatever the price of home-grown wheat was, foreign wheat, under these Corn Laws, could not be sold for less.

8. While Britain remained chiefly an agricultural country, the pinch was not felt. When she became mainly industrial, the manufacturers saw that if foreign corn came into the country free of duty, their workmen would get cheaper food, and wages would not need to be so high. They perceived, too, that the corn bought abroad would have to be paid for by British manufactures, and that this would result in fresh markets being opened to British goods.

9. The statesman who first brought the question of repealing the duty on foreign corn prominently before the people was Richard Cobden, a cotton manufacturer of Manchester. Between the years 1834 and 1836 he published several pamphlets showing that Britain was hampered by her system of customs duties, and by the heavy taxation and debt which she had incurred by interfering in the affairs of the Continent. He came to the conclusion that Great Britain should pursue a policy of free and unrestricted trade, and should interfere as little as possible in affairs abroad. Shortly after the publication of his pamphlets, Cobden threw all his energies into the movement which was destined to make his name famous in British history.

10. In 1836 an Anti-Corn-Law Association on a small scale was begun in London, but nothing came of it. Two years later seven merchants met together in Manchester to consider how to bring about the repeal of the obnoxious laws. From this small meeting sprang the great Anti-Corn-Law League. Once fairly started, the League

grew in strength and importance. Enormous meetings were held in the large towns, and branch associations were formed in all parts of the country. Money was readily raised to carry on the work by holding bazaars and inviting subscriptions. In Manchester a great hall, known as the Free Trade Hall, was erected, and devoted to the extension of the cause.

11. Associated with Cobden was John Bright, the son of a Rochdale Quaker who had made a fortune in the manufacture of carpets. Probably English public life never produced a greater orator than John Bright. Gifted with a commanding presence, a clear and resonant voice, and a marvellous power of speech, Bright soon became a power in the land. He and Cobden were warm friends, almost brothers. Together on public platforms, and, later, in the House of Commons, they displayed a strength, skill, and patience of argument almost unequalled in the history of public movements.

12. Sir Robert Peel, the Prime Minister, was in favour of many of the principles advocated by Cobden and Bright, though he was not as yet ready to remove the duty from foreign corn. Early in 1845, however, he was almost persuaded. Cobden had addressed meetings of farmers and labourers throughout the country, and his arguments began to produce their effect on the very persons whose livelihood was supposed to be jeopardized by the new movement. A few months later an event occurred which made Peel at one with the Anti-Corn-Law League. In the autumn of the same year, after months of cold, wet weather, the potato rot began in Ireland. Most of the Irish peasantry

then lived almost entirely on potatoes, and the failure of the crop meant famine. Four millions of people were without food, and thousands died of hunger, and thousands who survived emigrated to America. It was evident that the corn duty must be taken off—at least for a time.

13. Peel felt that to relax the Corn Laws was to pronounce their doom. While he hesitated, Lord John Russell, the leader of the Opposition, published a famous letter announcing his conversion to Free Trade. "Let us unite," he said, "to put an end to a system which has been proved to be the blight of commerce, the bane of agriculture, the source of bitter divisions among classes, the cause of penury, fever, mortality, and crime among the people." The Opposition was now ready to join hands with the Anti-Corn-Law League.

14. The Cabinet met, and Peel recommended an early assembling of Parliament, with the view of bringing forward some measure for abolishing the Corn Laws. Two members of the Cabinet refused to be parties to any such measure. Accordingly Peel resigned, and the queen sent for Lord John Russell to form a Ministry. Lord John Russell found himself unable to do so, and the queen was obliged to ask Sir Robert Peel to withdraw his resignation. He returned to office, and in 1846 repealed the Corn Laws, to the huge delight of the Leaguers, some of whom sat up all night to greet the dawn of the day of free imports. The prosperity shown in the device at the beginning of this chapter did not immediately follow. Prices remained high for twenty years. Then American grain flooded our markets, and the era of the cheap loaf began.

38. PEEL AND FREE TRADE.

1. Many industrial towns of Great Britain boast a statue to Sir Robert Peel, the great statesman who repealed the Corn Laws. On the pediment of many of them is the following quotation from the last speech which he delivered as Prime Minister : “ It may be I shall leave a name sometimes remembered with expressions of goodwill in those places which are the abode of men whose lot it is to labour and to earn their daily bread by the sweat of their brow—a name remembered with expressions of goodwill when they shall recreate their exhausted strength with abundant untaxed food, the sweeter because it is no longer leavened with a sense of injustice.” Let us learn something more of the life and achievements of the man who thus wished to be remembered.

2. Sir Robert Peel was born in 1788, and from the first was destined for a political career. When he was quite a small boy his father would set him, by way of training, to repeat every Sunday evening the morning and afternoon sermons of the day. He was educated at Harrow and Oxford, where he gained high honours in classics and mathematics. In 1809 his father, who was a very wealthy calico printer of Blackburn, bought for him the representation of Cashel. From the first he made his mark in Parliament, and speedily became recognized as an able speaker and a wise and hard-working member.

3. In 1811 he took office as Under Secretary of State for the Colonies, and the next year became Chief Secretary for Ireland. In 1822 he was Home Secretary, and in that

capacity was the means of introducing and carrying an admirable measure for reforming the harsh criminal law of the time. In 1828 he was again Home Secretary, in the Duke of Wellington's administration. So far he had been strongly Conservative. Now he showed indications of a change in his political opinions. In 1829 he introduced and carried a Bill to permit Catholics to sit in Parliament, and have equal political rights with their Protestant neighbours.

4. In 1830 Peel became a baronet, in succession to his father. Twice during the period 1834-39 he was Prime Minister, but in each case his period of office was brief and troubled. In 1841 he led an attack on the Ministry which was successful. In September of the same year he came into office as Prime Minister at the head of a large majority, mainly composed of landed gentry, who derived great pecuniary benefit from the duty on imported corn.



SIR ROBERT PEEL.

5. At this time Sir Robert Peel was by far the most powerful man in the House of Commons. Possessed of a high, austere character, he was respected by opponents as well as by friends. He was a parliamentary debater of great ability, and as a financier he had not an equal. His speeches have been described as "the very perfection of good sense and high principle clothed in the most impressive language." The great feature of his administra-

tion was the repeal of the Corn Laws, described in the last lesson.

6. Now let us learn how Peel inaugurated Free Trade in this country. The early years of Queen Victoria's reign were years of peace, and the government was conducted in an economical manner ; yet there was always a deficiency in the national income. The State revenue was then mainly derived from customs—that is, from duties levied on imported goods ; and from excise—that is, duties levied on certain articles produced within the country. We who live in Free Trade times can scarcely realize the number of articles which were subject to tax when Queen Victoria came to the throne. Soap, glass, bricks, windows, salt, paper, medicine, newspapers, and dozens of other things had to pay duty. In the year 1821 no fewer than 1,799 separate articles were taxed. In order to enforce the payment of these taxes the various trades were subject to a strict oversight which impeded industry.

7. The customs duties were even more burdensome. No fewer than twelve hundred articles were subject to duty—the idea being to discourage the importation of articles from abroad, and to compel people to buy the goods manufactured at home. The main object of the customs was not so much to fill the public treasury as to protect the home manufacturer or grower from foreign competition.

8. In 1842 Peel, with the assistance of his great lieutenant Gladstone, reduced the duties on seven hundred and fifty out of the twelve hundred articles subject to customs duties, and imposed in their place an income tax. This experiment was at once successful. Instead of the

usual deficiency, there was a small surplus in the years 1844 and 1845. The income tax, however, was still only an experiment, and the three years for which it was at first imposed were drawing to a close when Peel resolved on further reforms. He reimposed the income tax for another period, and further reduced the customs duties by sweeping away four hundred and fifty of the articles in the list. He abolished all export duties, and some of the excise duties. Finally, as we have already seen, he removed the keystone of the Protective system by repealing the Corn Laws.

9. The rage and dismay of the Protectionist party at what they called their betrayal can hardly be realized at this distance of time. The Tory squires did not hesitate to denounce Peel as a traitor. Their new leader, Benjamin Disraeli, attacked him most bitterly. Peel bore all the attacks calmly and firmly. A combination of Whigs and disappointed Protectionists was sufficient to defeat him, and in June 1846 he resigned. The news of his fall was received by the great majority of the nation with consternation. He refused to accept any honours, and quietly retired to his country seat, where he lived happily and quietly amidst the pictures and books which he loved so well.

10. Four years later he was thrown from his horse as he rode up Constitution Hill. The accident proved fatal, and he died on July 2, 1850. Though much misunderstood in his lifetime, succeeding generations have amply acknowledged the honesty, zeal, moral courage, and independence of character which he brought to the service of his country.

11. The system of Free Imports, or Free Trade, as it is

commonly called, is still the mercantile policy of Great Britain. She has held fast to the system ever since the days of Peel, even though every other great nation is more or less Protectionist. In June 1903 Mr. Chamberlain and other leading members of the Unionist party proposed a modification of the established system, in order to give a preference in our markets to colonial produce. Small duties were proposed on foreign corn, meat, and dairy produce, and on completely manufactured foreign goods. The whole question was thrashed out in the press and on the platform, and the nation had an opportunity of once more examining the basis of its commercial system. The continuance of Free Imports was the test question at the general election of 1906. The result was an overwhelming victory for the policy associated with the names of Cobden and Peel.

39. THE CRIMEAN WAR.—I.

1. Look at a map of Russia in Europe as it was before the Great War. You notice that it is a vast land mass, with three sections of seaboard—namely, that surrounding the White Sea, that washed by the Baltic Sea, and the northern and eastern shores of the Black Sea. The White Sea is well-nigh inaccessible for a great part of the year owing to the Arctic ice. The Baltic coast lies far from the ocean and the great highways of trade, and it too is thickly frozen over from October to May. The Black Sea is almost entirely land-locked, and its only entrance and exit is through the narrow straits of the Bosphorus and the



Balaklava.

(From the picture by John Charlton in the Blackburn Art Gallery. By permission of the Corporation.)

Dardanelles. In 1854 these straits were in the hands of the Turks, and only by permission of the Turks could Russian ships then get into the Mediterranean Sea at all.

2. Now, the aim of Russia at that time was to become a great sea Power. To do this she needed to extend her boundaries until they touched the ocean at some point which would enable her ships to compete freely with those of other nations. For centuries the splendid port of Constantinople had been an object of desire to Russia, and you can easily understand why she should covet it. The attainment of this port was a duty which Russian Tsars almost left as a legacy to their successors. The Tsar Nicholas, who began to reign in 1825, was a man of great ambition, and he made the extension of his boundaries towards ice-free water the aim and object of his life.

3. About the year 1840 Turkey seemed to be falling to pieces, and her weakness was Russia's opportunity. Fearing for her possessions in India, Britain set herself to oppose Russian advance by upholding the Sultan, who was then threatened with defeat at the hands of his rebellious vassal, Mehemet Ali, Viceroy of Egypt. Prussia and Austria joined with Great Britain, and British forces were sent against Mehemet Ali, who was reduced to submission in 1841. At the same time Turkey was freed from its dangerous dependence on Russia.

4. For the moment the ambition of Nicholas was foiled. Nevertheless, all observers saw that the break-up of the Ottoman Empire was only a matter of time. Lord Palmerston, almost alone amongst European statesmen, believed that Turkey still possessed the spark of life which

might be fanned into a flame of renewed vigour. On the other hand, the Tsar firmly believed that Turkey was on the point of falling to pieces. "We have on our hands," he said to the British ambassador, "a sick man—a very sick man. It would be a great misfortune if, one of these days, he should slip away from us before the necessary arrangements have been made." With this object in view he suggested a partition of the Turkish dominions, and offered Crete and Egypt as Britain's share of the spoil. The offer was, of course, refused.

5. In 1852 a trifling cause of difference arose between France and Russia. A rivalry then existed between the members of the Latin and Greek Churches with reference to the Holy Places in Palestine. The Latin monks claimed that certain of these places should be entrusted exclusively to their keeping. This claim the Greek monks disputed. As both Greeks and Latins were Christians, the matter would seem almost too small for discussion ; but beneath these trifles lay more serious questions.

6. The Tsar Nicholas supported the Greeks, and Lewis Napoleon was the champion of the Latins. Both parties brought pressure to bear on the Sultan, who at last decided in favour of the Latin Church. Thereupon the Tsar proceeded to strong measures. He put forward a claim that the Sultan should recognize him as the protector of all Christians within the Turkish Empire. This would have given Russia a right to interfere in the internal government of Turkey.

7. The demand was, of course, resisted, and in 1853 Nicholas sent his armies across the Pruth, and occupied



Saving the Colours: An Incident of the Battle of Inkermann.

(From the picture by Robert Gibb, R.S.A. By permission of Mr. Bruce-Lowe.)

In the neighbourhood of the Sandbag Battery the British Guards were surrounded by a strong Russian force, through which they cut their way, with the colours carried high as a rallying point. The moment selected for representation is that when the Guards are first entering their own lines.

Moldavia and Wallachia, two tributary states of Turkey. Britain, though not in the least interested in the quarrel about the Holy Places, was very much concerned at the occupation of Turkish territory by Russian troops. She feared that it was the first step towards bringing about the sick man's death by violent means. Consequently, Sir Stratford Canning, afterwards Lord Stratford de Redcliffe, was sent to Constantinople. He knew the East well, and could be trusted to counteract Russian intrigues. For the Tsar Nicholas he had a frank and bitter hatred, and with the Sultan he had enormous influence.

8. While the dispute about the Holy Places was in its early stages, Sir Stratford Canning was in England, and he did not leave for Constantinople until matters had become serious. He was therefore armed with special powers in case of need. One of these special powers was authority to summon the British fleet to the Dardanelles. Sir Stratford Canning was not anxious to avoid war, and told the Sultan of his power to summon the British fleet. The result was that the Sultan rejected the Russian proposals in such a way that it was impossible for the Russian minister without loss of dignity to remain in Constantinople.

9. Even at the moment when the Russian troops entered Turkish territory, and for long after, sincere efforts to maintain peace would probably have been successful; but the general feeling in France and Britain was in favour of war. Lord Aberdeen, the British Prime Minister, was a friend of the Tsar, and desirous of preserving peace; but Lord Palmerston, and other ministers, drove him into war against his will and better judgment.

10. The Tsar did much to avert war. He declared that his only object in entering Turkish territory was to hold certain provinces in pledge until the question in dispute had been satisfactorily settled. He even accepted a draft agreement drawn up by the Powers as the basis of a settlement. The Governments of Britain and France, however, declared that the agreement was not satisfactory to them, and the French and British fleets passed the Dardanelles in October. On March 27, 1854, war was declared by Great Britain and France against the Tsar.

11. It is difficult to see for what object war was declared. No doubt there were, and still are, serious questions to be settled with reference to the Turkish Empire ; but these questions would be no nearer settlement if Russia were defeated. Yet there were but few Britons who sympathized with the views of men like Cobden and Bright, who were strongly opposed to the war. Cobden, indeed, saw the difficulty, and stated it clearly. He declared that the question to be answered was, "What should be done with the Christian population of Turkey?" "Mohammedanism," he said, "cannot be maintained, and I should be sorry to see this country fighting for the maintenance of Mohammedanism. You may keep Turkey on the map of Europe, but do not think that you can keep up the Mohammedan rule in the country." Cobden, however, spoke to those who would not listen, and war began.

12. Thus did Britain drift into a fierce struggle with the most powerful monarch in Europe. During the long years of peace since the battle of Waterloo our army had been much neglected. It was now weak in numbers, and utterly

unprepared for the field. Nevertheless, even before the declaration of war, the allies hurried troops and stores eastward. The command of the British forces was given to Lord Raglan, a veteran of sixty-six, who had served as Wellington's aide-de-camp in Spain. The leader of the French was Marshal St. Arnaud, a soldier whose experience had been gained in the Algerian wars.

13. The campaign opened in the provinces of Turkey which had been occupied by the Russian troops. As these provinces were semi-independent states, the Austrians combined with the Turks, and forced the Russians to withdraw from them. After the retreat of the Russians, Austria decided that her part in the campaign was at an end, and Britain and France were left to carry on the war.

40. THE CRIMEAN WAR.—II.

1. Look again at the map of Russia in Europe, and find the peninsula of the Crimea, which juts into the Black Sea. It is roughly quadrilateral in form, and is united to the mainland by the isthmus of Perekop, which is only four miles wide at its narrowest point. The coast of the peninsula is much indented, and possesses a large number of admirable harbours and anchorages. The chief physical feature of the Crimea is the Yaila chain of mountains, which is practically a continuation of the Caucasus, and fringes a great portion of the southern shore. The only rivers worth mention are the Alma and the Tchernaya, both of which fall into the Black Sea on the south-west of the peninsula.

2. No one knows exactly who suggested the Crimea as the main theatre of the war which broke out in 1854, but naturally the eyes of military and naval men in England and France were directed to the strongly-fortified harbour of Sebastopol, which sheltered the Russian fleet in the Black Sea. Sebastopol was the great arsenal of Russia. In the minds of the allies it was the base of all Russia's efforts at conquest. If Sebastopol could be taken and destroyed, military men thought that Russia would be forced to sue for peace.

3. After wearisome delays, a combined force of British, French, and Turks was landed at Eupatoria, about forty miles north of Sebastopol, on September 14, 1854. The total strength of the allied armies was sixty-four thousand men, twenty-seven thousand of whom were British. The landing of the troops was completed on the eighteenth, and next day the allies moved southward in the direction of Sebastopol. A few hours' march brought them within sight of the Russian army, which was strongly posted on a line of hills rising steeply from the little river Alma.

4. The allies waded the stream under a deadly fire from the Russian guns, and forced their way up the heights. The Russians fought stubbornly, and the invaders fell fast. So steep was the ascent that the wounded as they fell rolled helplessly down the hill. No effort of the Russians, however, could check the resolute advance of the allies. While the infantry charged the enemy in front, Lord Raglan brought two guns to bear upon the Russian flank. A well-directed fire cut lanes through the masses of the enemy, and the dismayed Russians broke and fled. Our first battle was fought and our first victory gained.

5. Lord Raglan desired to pursue the enemy and make a dash at Sebastopol, but Marshal St. Arnaud refused on the ground that his troops were worn out. The effect of delay in following up the pursuit was fatal; the Russians were given time to protect themselves behind their fortresses and entrenchments. Valuable time was also wasted by the allies in choosing a suitable position for an attack on Sebastopol itself. Had an assault been made at once, the fortress might possibly have been carried by storm. After a month's delay siege-guns were brought up to the heights on the south side of the city. Then twelve or fourteen hundred pieces of heavy cannon kept up for many days such a fire as no city had endured before. Sebastopol, however, was not much weakened, and the allies soon discovered that speedy success was no longer to be hoped for.

6. It was during the autumn days, when the terrible Russian winter was fast approaching, that an episode took place which will be remembered when other incidents in the Crimean War have been forgotten. The Russian commander decided to remain no longer strictly on the defensive, but to advance, and, if possible, dislodge the British from the position they had taken up at Balaklava, on the sea-coast, south of Sebastopol. With this object in view he ordered a large party of his troops to attack certain redoubts defended by the Turks, and having captured them, to assault Balaklava itself. The Heavy Brigade of British cavalry was ordered to intercept the Russians. It dashed through and through a largely superior body of the enemy, and commenced that brilliant series of cavalry charges which marked the day.

7. After this charge of the Heavy Brigade, on October

25, 1854, the Russians were seen to be removing the cannon from the redoubts which they had captured from the Turks. Lord Raglan, who was watching them, saw that a well-timed attack would prevent the Russians from carrying out their plan. He therefore ordered the Light Brigade to charge and save the guns; but his commands, which were not very clearly expressed, were misunderstood. The officer who received the orders thought that Lord Raglan meant the Light Brigade to charge a battery of artillery which was stationed in the centre of the Russian position. Accordingly he gave the command.

8. Every man in the brigade knew that some terrible mistake had been made, but no soldier shrank from his duty of obedience. "Theirs not to reason why, theirs but to do and die." Six hundred and seven men set forth on that memorable ride, but only one hundred and ninety-eight returned. Though "some one had blundered," the blunder was atoned for by a bravery never to be forgotten. All Europe rang with wonder and admiration at the splendid but useless charge. The French general Bosquet cried, "It is magnificent, but it is not war." Nevertheless, it lives in literature, for the splendid courage which the Light Brigade displayed inspired Tennyson to immortalize it.

9. Less than a fortnight after the battle of Balaklava, the British army was attacked by the Russians in great force. About daybreak on the fifth of November fifty thousand Russians advanced against the British lines across the Bridge of Inkermann. Concealed by a thick fog which shrouded hill and valley, they were well within striking distance before their approach was discovered. Swarming up the heights,

they charged the scanty British force which held the plateau of Inkermann. The Russians should have had an easy success, for the defenders of the position were fearfully outnumbered, and were short of powder. The fiercest engagement of the whole war followed; a series of stubborn hand-to-hand fights took place; and the Russians were driven off, with a loss of twelve thousand men.

10. After the battle of Inkermann a period of hardship was endured by the allies such as has seldom been the lot of any army. The soldiers were encamped in exposed positions, on upland plains swept by icy winds from Northern Russia. Fierce storms on the Black Sea destroyed transports conveying clothing, blankets, provisions, and hospital necessities. On land, tents were blown away, food ran short, and our soldiers were numbed and stiffened by the unaccustomed cold. So intense was the frost that no one could touch any metal substance without the risk of losing the skin of his hand.

11. The transport arrangements were so bad that stores went hopelessly astray. The men were often half-fed; their clothes were in rags; their boots were worn to tatters; they slept on the wet ground, exhausted by toil, and cold, and hunger. Fuel was not to be had, and often they could not cook their food. They sickened and died by hundreds, and the British army, always victorious in actual warfare, melted swiftly away under the neglect or mismanagement of its leaders. At one time the army consisted of eleven thousand men under arms and thirteen thousand in hospital.

12. In the midst of this misery and wretchedness there was one ray of light, which came from the devotion of a

noble woman. The Secretary for War, horrified at the condition of the wounded, begged Miss Florence Nightingale, the daughter of a wealthy country gentleman, to undertake the charge of the hospitals at Scutari. She was thoroughly equipped for her work, and readily accepted the task. She brought order out of chaos, and earned the lasting gratitude of the nation, and the blessings of thousands of wounded and suffering men.

13. When the miseries of our soldiers were reported in Britain, great was the anger of the people against those who were responsible for provisioning and clothing the army. Lord Aberdeen, the Prime Minister, was forced to resign; and his successor, Lord Palmerston, began to conduct the struggle with all his characteristic vigour. Supplies and reinforcements were hurried to the Crimea; a railway was built from Balaklava to the front; and soon Britain had nearly forty thousand men under arms, while France had one hundred thousand men.

14. The terrible winter of 1854-55 was scarcely over when the Tsar Nicholas died, and there seemed to be hopes of peace, which, however, were not realized. The war went on. The allies had never for a moment loosened their hold on the besieged city, which was soon a mass of ruins. The Russians then fortified a position outside the town, and the allies gradually drew their trenches closer to the Russian works, until at one point the opposed armies were within speaking distance of each other. A very strong earthwork, the Malakoff, faced the French position; another, the Redan, was in front of the British. The allies determined to carry these works by assault.

15. On September 5, 1855, the French, whose trenches were now within fifteen yards of the enemy, were able, after a brief but violent struggle, to take the Malakoff. The British had a considerable distance to go under a murderous fire, but they forced their way into the Redan. Unfortunately, they were left without support, and were driven out again with terrible loss. The Russian position, however, could no longer be held, and by means of a bridge of boats across the harbour the troops abandoned the southern side of the city. With this retreat from Sebastopol the war ended.

16. The loss of life on both sides had been enormous, more especially on the side of Russia, for her soldiers had perished in thousands during the long marches towards the Crimea. Everything tended to make Russia desire peace. Neither did the allies wish to continue the conflict, and in March 1856 the Treaty of Paris was signed. By this treaty the Black Sea was declared to be open to the commerce of all the world. No warships, however, were to be kept on it, nor were any fortresses to be built on its shores. The Powers agreed that they had no right to interfere in the government of Turkey, not even to protect the Sultan's Christian subjects. Britain had lost some twenty-four thousand men, forty-one millions had been added to the National Debt, and the military glory which had been secured was but a poor return for so great a waste of blood and treasure. The Crimean War saved for a time the Ottoman Government, but even this poor success was not lasting. Twenty-two years after the close of the campaign Russia and Turkey were at war again.



The Relief of Lucknow.

(From the picture by Jones Barker. By permission of the Corporation of Glasgow.)

The three central figures are those of the most prominent generals in the suppression of the Mutiny. The figure on the left is that of Sir Henry Havelock, the central figure is that of Sir James Outram, and the figure on the right is that of Sir Colin Campbell.

41. THE INDIAN MUTINY.—I.

1. To-day we will in imagination visit the busy Indian city of Cawnpur, which stands on the right bank of the Ganges, about two hundred and fifty miles south-east of Delhi. Cawnpur has none of the architectural glories of the older Indian cities, but it possesses a Memorial Garden which recalls one of the most terrible incidents in that great mutiny of Sepoys, or native Hindu soldiers, which began in May 1857. Let us visit the garden. A marble cross set in a grass plot shaded by solemn yew trees marks the scene of the tragedy, and not far away is an enclosure. In the centre of it, above a long-disused well, there stands a beautiful marble figure representing an angel with a sad but hopeful countenance, and carrying in either hand the palm of victory. Round the base of the statue runs this inscription :—

“Sacred to the perpetual Memory of a great company of Christian People, chiefly women and children, who, near this spot, were cruelly massacred by the followers of the rebel Nana Dhoomdopunt of Bithwoor, and cast, the dying with the dead, into the well below, on July 15, 1857.”

2. Standing on the spot where this terrible deed was perpetrated, let us inquire how the Mutiny arose, how it was subdued, and what were its consequences. You already know something of the history of India down to the beginning of Queen Victoria's reign. Two years after she came to the throne an expedition was sent into Afghanistan to counteract Russian influence in that country, by dethron-

ing the Ameer and setting up another ruler more friendly to Britain.

3. This seemed to have been accomplished, when suddenly an insurrection broke out in Kabul, the capital of Afghanistan, and the British envoy was murdered. The British army was forced to retire, under a treaty of protection; but during the long and terrible march through the Khaibar Pass every soul but one perished either at the hands of the treacherous Afghans or by cold and hunger. Out of the whole expedition only one man,



THE ANGEL OF THE
WELL AT CAWNPUR.

Dr. Brydon, fainting and too weak to speak, rode into Jelalabad to tell the hideous tale. The honour of the British arms was afterwards retrieved; but a terrible sacrifice of life and treasure had been made, for no advantage at all.

4. The next event of special importance in Indian history was the conquest of the Punjab, or the "land of the five rivers," in the north-west of the peninsula. The conquest was completed in 1849, while Lord Dalhousie was Governor-General. Three years earlier, after a series of pitched battles, very hotly contested, the inhabitants had submitted, and a British protectorate had been established. In 1848 the province rose again, and a second severe struggle began. The Sikhs fought stubbornly, but



THE ENCLOSURE AT CAWNPUR.

Lord Gough, the British commander, ended the war by the victory of Gujerat, and the Punjab became British territory.

5. In the days of Dalhousie the power and territory of the East India Company greatly increased. Oudh, Lower Burma, and other states were annexed ; and many important public works were undertaken in the provinces which the Company had previously acquired. Lord Dalhousie paid special attention to the making of roads and canals, and cut the first sod of the first Indian railway. When Lord Canning succeeded him, in 1856, there seemed to be every prospect of a period of peace and prosperity. No one would then have believed that in less than a year's time the whole valley of the Ganges from Patna to Delhi would be in a state of open rebellion. Yet so it was.

6. The Indian Mutiny, which occurred in 1857, was a revolt of the Sepoys or native soldiers in the employment of the East India Company. The Sepoys were, for the most part, men of a fairly high caste, who observed with great strictness their religious practices. One of these practices is not to eat the flesh of the cow or the pig. A Hindu who puts to his lips the flesh of these forbidden animals at once "loses caste"—that is, he is cut off from the section of society to which he belongs. Not only is the man who has lost caste shunned by his fellows, but he is supposed to suffer continued misery after death.

7. The immediate cause of the outbreak was the introduction of the Enfield rifle, which required the use of greased cartridges. The soldiers had to bite off the ends of the cartridges, which had been, or were thought to have been, greased with the fat of the cow or the pig. When,

therefore, the Sepoys bit the new cartridges, their lips would come in contact with the grease, and they would at once lose caste. The Sepoys believed that the greasing of the cartridges was a design of the Government to cause them to lose their caste and to drive them to adopt Christianity. In a country such as India, where custom never changes, where rumour spreads rapidly and is believed without question, such a belief was like the spark which lights the forest fire.

8. At Meerut, an important military station some forty miles north-east of Delhi, a number of Sepoys had refused to use the greased cartridges, and had been tried by court-martial. The men were stripped of their uniform, sentenced to long terms of imprisonment, and on Saturday, the ninth of May, were marched to jail in fetters. There were tears, entreaties, and curses as the fettered prisoners were removed, and intense excitement amongst the Sepoys. On Sunday, May 10, 1857, when the European soldiers were gathering for church, a sudden movement took place in the native quarters. The prisoners were rescued, officers were shot, houses were fired, and Europeans—men, women, and children—were put to the sword. The Mutiny had begun.

9. Unfortunately, the officers stationed at Meerut took no immediate steps to suppress the outbreak. In the meantime the mutineers galloped to Delhi, and proclaimed the restoration of the Mogul Empire. On the following day, the eleventh of May, the Mohammedan population of Delhi joined the revolt. The Europeans in the city were unable to make any stand against the mutineers, and were forced to quit Delhi, after blowing up the powder magazine. A brave telegraph clerk had just time

to flash the dreadful news to Lahore before he was cut down. The Mutiny had now become a rebellion. It spread rapidly throughout the North-West Provinces, Oudh, and Lower Bengal, and massacres took place everywhere, sometimes without warning. None of the Sepoys in these districts could be trusted.

10. Fortunately, there were parts of India to which the rebellion did not extend. The Sikhs, as the inhabitants of the Punjab are called, remained loyal, and rendered valuable help to the British forces at the siege of Delhi. In Madras also and in Bombay the troops, for the most part, remained true. In Central India, however, the Mutiny was general, and in Hyderabad only the native prince Sir Salar Jang remained friendly. The main interest of the war gathered round three centres—Cawnpur, Lucknow, and Delhi.

11. Now let us learn what took place in the Memorial Garden of Cawnpur in which we are standing. In the town there was the largest native garrison in India, and a disinherited prince, named Nana, was proclaimed leader of the mutineers. The name of this man is already familiar to you, for you read it on the base of the statue in the enclosure. The European residents and troops at Cawnpur took refuge behind hastily-constructed entrenchments, and held out against the enemy during the burning heat of an Indian June. Including women and children, they only numbered about eleven hundred, and it was clear that the struggle could not be long maintained unless help came.

12. There seemed to be but little chance of help coming, and the sufferings of the besieged were terrible. They therefore accepted the terms offered by Nana, who promised

to send them down the river to Allahabad. No sooner had these unhappy people embarked in boats, than a fire of musketry and artillery opened on them from Nana's soldiery, who lined the banks of the river. In a few minutes half of the little party was killed or wounded. The survivors were seized and carried back to Cawnpur, where the men were at once shot. The women and children, two hundred and six in number, were held captive in a small building.

13. Eighteen days later five men armed with sabres were seen in the twilight to approach this building. They entered the room, and quietly closed the door. Shrieks were heard and low groans, and the sound of blows as the savages hewed to death the unresisting women and little children who filled the room. Thrice a hacked and blunted sabre was passed out, and a sharper weapon received in exchange. Next morning the mutilated bodies were cast into yonder well, above which the sorrowing angel now stands in perpetual memory.

14. When, two days later, an avenging British force, under General Havelock, reached Cawnpur, the blood of the victims still lay on the stone pavement of the hall; fragments of ladies' and children's dresses, soaked in blood, were scattered all around. The traces of this awful crime filled our soldiers with horror, and steeled their hearts for the work of vengeance. In their fury at the treachery and cruelty of the Sepoys our soldiers were often as bloodthirsty as the mutineers themselves.

15. At Lucknow the Europeans were fortunate in having for their leader that brave and resolute man, Sir Henry Lawrence. He had foreseen what was likely to happen, and

had fortified the Residency. Thither the Europeans of Lucknow retired under his command on the second of July. There was only one British regiment to defend the place against the overwhelming numbers of the enemy. The little garrison lost its brave commander, who was killed in the course of the defence; but, inspired by his courage and resolution, it managed to hold out until Havelock and Outram arrived with reinforcements on the twenty-fifth of September. Even then the garrison was not relieved, as the relievers themselves were again besieged. They were finally rescued when Sir Colin Campbell fought his way in on the seventeenth of November.

42. THE INDIAN MUTINY.—II.

1. Meanwhile a siege of a different character was proceeding at Delhi, where the city, garrisoned by thirty thousand rebels, was besieged by a British force numbering only eight thousand. The defences of Delhi covered an area of three square miles, and were of a formidable character. The British army occupied a ridge to the north of the city, and held it in spite of all the efforts of the Sepoys to dislodge them. Dwindling daily from battle and disease, they held on until Nicholson arrived from the Punjab in August with a brigade and siege train.

2. Nicholson counselled a speedy attack on the place, and his advice at last prevailed. Fifty-four guns were brought into position, and on the fourteenth of September the city was stormed. One of the great gates, known as

the Kashmir Gate, was blown in by a devoted band of engineers, nearly all of whom perished ; and after six days' fighting in the streets Delhi was won, and once more held by British troops. The brave Nicholson, the hero of the siege, was mortally wounded while leading a storming party, and died a few days later. His death marks the turning-point in the history of the Mutiny. With the relief of Lucknow and the fall of Delhi the worst of the danger was past.

3. From the beginning of the revolt the British had decided on a policy of merciless vengeance. Awful examples were made of captured mutineers, some of whom were blown away from the mouth of cannon. The Mutiny had been a terrible struggle, in which even British tenacity and courage were hardly able to cope with the overpowering numbers of drilled and well-armed native soldiers. Our success was largely due to the fidelity of the Sikhs and other native troops, to the loyalty of some of the native princes, and to the hold which a century of good government had given us upon Bengal and the south. After the Mutiny was over people began to attempt to explain it, or to draw lessons from it for the future government of India.

4. As I have pointed out, the immediate cause of the outbreak was the outrage supposed to have been committed on the religious feelings of the Sepoys. There were, however, deeper reasons. It is possible that the native troops had begun to realize their strength, and were encouraged by an old prophecy that the hundredth anniversary of Plassey would see the power of the British broken in India. They had learned in the Afghan War that the British troops were

not invincible, and strange stories were afloat amongst them of British disasters in the Crimea. They thought that Britain was a decaying nation.

5. When the Mutiny broke out there were only twenty-two thousand European soldiers in the peninsula. The Sepoys believed that if they could overthrow this small army they would be able to drive the British out of India for ever. When once the Sepoys had mutinied, there were many discontented persons ready to swell their ranks. The most powerful and active of these were the wealthy de-throned princes, who had little to occupy them but conspiracy and plans of revolt.

6. As soon as the Mutiny was suppressed, steps were taken to rectify the military faults which had rendered the revolt possible. The native troops were reduced in number, and the European force was increased. At the time of the Mutiny there were six native soldiers to every European soldier ; now there are only two. All the important military posts are now garrisoned by Europeans. Ever since the Mutiny, India has been divided into districts, with separate armies and administrations.

7. The immediate result of the Mutiny was a great change in the system of Indian government. The East India Company ceased to exist, and its powers were taken over by the Crown. The Board of Control was abolished, and a new officer, a Secretary of State for India, was appointed to exercise its powers, with the help and advice of a Council in London. This was done by an Act of Parliament passed in 1858. By another Act passed in 1861 the supreme authority was transferred to the British Parlia-



SAVING THE GUNS AT MAIWAND.
(From the picture by J. D. Giles.)

ment and the Crown. The title "Empress of India," which was assumed by Queen Victoria in 1876, is the symbol that India has now passed from the control of a body of merchants to that of the British nation.

8. Several very important points must always engage the attention of those concerned with the welfare of India. The first and perhaps the most important point is the vast Indian population which is subject to the British Crown. It numbers nearly three hundred millions, a total too large for us to grasp its meaning. We shall perhaps form some idea of the vastness of the population when we learn that one person in every five existing on the globe lives in India. The population of the peninsula is steadily and rapidly increasing.

9. Formerly the growth of population in India was checked by terrible famines, ferocious wars, and devastating plagues. The British Government has done much to provide against famine. Food has been brought by railways within reach of people likely to suffer from failing crops, the land has been made more productive by improved agriculture, and tanks and canals have been largely constructed to irrigate the fields. British rule has given the blessings of peace to India, and the progress of science has rendered the plagues less destructive than they were formerly.

10. Military history in India since the Mutiny is mainly concerned with frontier wars, undertaken for the purpose of punishing the raids of native tribes of hillmen. In 1888 an expedition was sent against the Black Mountain tribes of Bhutan. In 1891 the murder of the British Resident at Manipur was avenged; and a few years later a force was

sent to Chitral, where a British fort had been attacked. In 1897 the Afridis, and other hill tribes round the Khaibar Pass, refused to acknowledge British authority. A long and fierce struggle followed, in the course of which British courage and endurance were severely tested. The extraordinary gallantry of the Gordon Highlanders in storming the Dargai ridge was the most memorable event of the war. Ultimately the tribes submitted.

11. In 1885 Thebaw, King of Burma, forced a war upon us, and as a result Upper Burma was annexed and Thebaw deposed and exiled. Afghanistan was unmolested from 1843 to 1878. In the latter year Russian influence became so strong in the Afghan capital that Lord Beaconsfield demanded the presence of a British Resident there. This was refused, and war was declared. The invasion was made by three armies, and was completely successful. The Ameer, Shere Ali, fled; his son, Yakoob Khan, was set up in his place; and a British Resident was received.

12. Then the events of 1841 repeated themselves. A rebellion broke out; the Resident, Sir Louis Cavagnari, and his escort were murdered; and British troops once more invaded Afghanistan (October 1879). Kabul was occupied by General (afterwards Lord) Roberts; but during the civil war which broke out between two pretenders, Abdurrahman and Ayooob Khan, he was besieged in his entrenchments. Finally he drove off his assailants, but our hold upon the country was so insecure that the Government decided to withdraw the British troops. Before the withdrawal could take place, Ayooob Khan had cut to pieces a British force at the battle of Maiwand, and was besieging Kandahar.

13. General Roberts at once set out from Kabul, reached Kandahar by forced marches over a difficult country, routed Ayooob's army, and relieved the beleaguered garrison. This brilliant feat of arms restored our prestige, but led to no other result. Abdurrahman was recognized as Ameer, and the British forces then withdrew, leaving the new Ameer to establish his power as best he could (1880). Kandahar was given up to him in the next year.

14. The only recent event in the history of India upon which we need dwell is the formation of a North-West Frontier Province, which enables us more readily to hold the wild turbulent hill tribes in check. British influence has now been pushed beyond that great barrier of mountains on the north-west which formerly was considered our most formidable line of defence. Baluchistan, to the south of Afghanistan, has become British; the remote recesses of the mysterious land of Tibet have been invaded by a British expedition. Burma became partly British in 1852, and wholly so thirty-three years later. Since the defeat of Russia by Japan, and the conclusion of the Anglo-Russian Convention of 1907, the old dread of Russian invasion has passed away, and, as far as external foes are concerned, India may be said to be more secure than she has ever been before.

43. EGYPT.

1. To-day we will visit the remarkable canal which unites the Mediterranean with the Red Sea, and brings our great Indian dependency within three weeks' journey

of London. The Suez Canal is now the main channel of communication between Europe and the East. It is over one hundred miles long, thirty-six feet deep, and from two hundred to three hundred and fifty feet wide. Ships thread it in about sixteen hours, and thus save the long ocean journey round the Cape of Good Hope. There was a canal through the isthmus in ancient Egyptian times. The modern canal, however, dates from 1869, when it was opened with a series of magnificent *fêtes*. It belongs to no one nation, though Britain possesses nearly half of the shares. The great Powers have decided that even in time of war all vessels, whether armed or not, shall freely pass through the canal, and that in no circumstances shall it be blockaded.

2. In 1869, when the Suez Canal was opened, the ruler of Egypt was Ismail Pasha, a very intelligent man, with large ideas. He set about reforming the administration of his country, and extending its boundaries southward to the Sudan, where he attempted to stamp out the slave trade. Egypt owes much of her material progress to Ismail, who built railways, improved the irrigation, and founded schools and industries. All this, however, he did at ruinous cost to his people. Money was necessary to carry out his plans, and this he obtained from foreigners, chiefly from the British and the French. By 1875 the public debt was ninety-one millions, and was increasing every month. In this dilemma Ismail sold to Lord Beaconsfield the one hundred and seventy-seven thousand shares which he held in the Suez Canal for £4,000,000. In this way Britain became half-owner of the canal, and acquired an important stake in the country.

3. Up to the end of 1875 the interest on the public debt was punctually paid by the Egyptian Government. Then, however, the Khedive found that the State was bankrupt, and could no longer pay its way. The British Government sent an official to report on the state of the Egyptian finances, and the upshot was that France and Britain, in the interests of the bondholders, took over the management of the debt. Ismail soon found that he was no longer master in his own house, and in 1879, during a national revolt, he dismissed his British and French advisers.

4. This led to a naval demonstration by the Powers, and to the deposition of Ismail, who was succeeded by his son Mohammed Tewfik. The new Khedive was entirely in the hands of his foreign advisers, and there was great dissatisfaction amongst the people. In 1882 an Egyptian officer, named Arabi Pasha, led a national movement against the control of the foreigners. His cry was, "Egypt for the Egyptians." The fortifications of Alexandria were strengthened, big guns were mounted, and in June a native rabble invaded the European quarter, plundered the shops, and slew many foreigners.

5. Meanwhile a fleet of British and French ships of war had entered the harbour of Alexandria. The British admiral gave notice that unless the forts of Alexandria were given up at a specified time he would bombard the place. The French refused to take part in the war which was on the eve of commencing, and the greater part of their fleet sailed out of the harbour. At 7 a.m. on the eleventh of July the first shot was fired. The Egyptian forts and batteries replied, but by 5.30 their guns were completely

silenced. Next day the white flag was hoisted and the forts were surrendered; but meanwhile Arabi and his army had retreated. Sailors and marines were landed, but before they could take possession of the city it was given over to pillage, massacre, and wanton destruction. More than two thousand Europeans were put to death.

6. Sir Garnet Wolseley arrived with an army in August, and a decisive battle was fought on the thirteenth of September at Tel-el-Kebir. Arabi fled at the first shot, but the rank and file of the Egyptians fought with desperate courage. In two hours all was over, and two thousand Egyptians lay dead in their trenches. On the fifteenth of the month Wolseley entered Cairo, and Arabi's rebellion was completely crushed.

7. Victory had been won without either the assistance of Turkey, the suzerain Power, or of France, our partner in the "Dual Control." The latter Power now prepared to resume her part of the control; but Britain, having borne the whole burden and cost of the war, was no longer ready to share with any other Power the position which her success had won. From 1882 till 1914 Egypt was practically governed by the British, though until 1904 the French retained certain rights in the matter of raising new loans and fixing a limit to Government expenditure. In 1914, after the entry of Turkey into the Great War, Egypt was proclaimed a British Protectorate, but in 1922 Egypt became an independent sovereign state.

8. Before closing this lesson, I must refer to the conquest of the upper regions of the Nile, known as the Sudan. You will remember that Ismail attempted to extend Egyptian



The Suez Canal—British Troopship passing through.

The construction of the Suez Canal was begun in 1859, under the direction of M. de Lesseps, and on November 17, 1869, it was opened for traffic. The total cost was about £20,000,000. The length of the canal from Port Said to Suez is nearly 100 miles. It has a uniform depth of 29 ft., and a width of 213 ft. in the straight parts and from 246 ft. to 262 ft. in the curves; thus ships of 10,000 tons can be navigated safely through. The average time of passage is about twenty hours, and with the aid of the electric light navigation can be carried on at night. The distance from London to Bombay by the Cape is about 11,500 miles; by the Suez Canal, 6,400 miles.

influence southwards, and to stamp out the slave trade, which until lately was the curse of this region. In carrying out this work he appealed to Britain, and Sir Samuel Baker was entrusted with an expedition, which did good work, but did not by any means put an end to the odious slave traffic, which after his return was carried on with even more vigour than before. Under compulsion, the Khedive made General Gordon Governor of the Equatorial Provinces of Central Africa—that is to say, of the region of the Upper Nile of which Khartum is the capital. Gordon, though much hampered in his work, managed to scatter the slave merchants and destroy their trade. In 1880, being thwarted by the Governor-General of the Sudan, he resigned.

9. During Arabi's rebellion troubles broke out in the Sudan, which passed into the hands of the Arab leader known as the Mahdi, or "Prophet." This Mahdi, as his followers called him, was a religious adventurer, who roused his followers to frenzied revolt against the Egyptian officials. In November 1883 he defeated and entirely destroyed a mixed force of British and Egyptian troops under Hicks Pasha, and the British Government then advised the Khedive of Egypt to abandon the Sudan, after first withdrawing the garrisons to a place of safety.

10. This work of withdrawal was entrusted to Gordon, who, on January 18, 1884, set out for the Sudan, for the purpose of bringing away the garrisons of Khartum and other places. On February 18 he reached Khartum, and by March he had sent two thousand five hundred men down the Nile. He was then being gradually hemmed in by the Mahdi and his fanatical forces. On April 16

the telegraph wires were cut, and thenceforward Gordon was shut out from all communication with the outer world.

11. At length, on the first of September, Sir Garnet Wolseley left England to try to relieve him. Everybody felt that if Gordon was to be relieved, Wolseley was the man to do it. Once started, everything possible was done to hasten on the expedition ; but it was then too late. A large force crossed the desert to Metemmeh, where it arrived on January 20, 1885, under the command of Sir C. Wilson. Letters were there received from Gordon, dated the fourteenth of December, in which he said that he expected a catastrophe in ten days. On the same day he wrote to his sister, "I am quite happy, thank God ! and, like Lawrence, I have tried to do my duty." On January 26, after a siege of three hundred and seven days, Khartum was betrayed into the hands of the Mahdi, and the brave Gordon was murdered.

12. The policy of crushing the Mahdi was abandoned for the time, and the British troops withdrew to Wady Halfa, which became the southern frontier of Egypt. In 1896, after the Sudan had been sealed up, as it were, for nearly fifteen years, its reconquest was begun. In 1897, after some severe fighting with the Dervishes, Sir Herbert (afterwards Lord) Kitchener, at the head of British and Egyptian troops, pushed on to Berber. Early in 1898 the Mahdi's army was completely defeated at the battle of the Atbara ; and a few months later, at Omdurman, the Dervish power in the Sudan was finally shattered by the defeat of the Khalifa, the Mahdi's successor.

44. GLADSTONE AND HOME RULE.

1. Come with me to the little Flintshire town of Hawarden. Everywhere in Hawarden you meet with the name of Gladstone, the great statesman who has already been mentioned in these pages. His home, Hawarden Castle, lies within yonder gates. The original Hawarden Castle is a ruin dating from the thirteenth century ; the modern castle is a handsome mansion situated in a magnificently wooded park. Many of the trees have fallen before the axe of the statesman, who delighted to exercise himself in the woodman's craft. In the house itself is the library, known as the "Temple of Peace," in which he pursued those scholarly studies with which he diversified the arduous labours of his life.

2. Here, in the park, which is almost a sacred place to his admirers, let us learn something of Gladstone's career. William Ewart Gladstone was born in Liverpool on December 29, 1809. His father, Sir John Gladstone, was a corn merchant, and had been member of Parliament for a Scottish constituency. Gladstone was educated at Eton and Christ Church, Oxford. Both at school and at the university he gave ample evidence of the great ability with which he was endowed. He left Oxford with the highest honours, and with a reputation as a promising orator.

3. In 1832 he entered Parliament as the representative of Newark. Unlike his great rival, Disraeli, he was a success from the first. His manner, his voice, his choice of words, his wonderful fluency of speech, impressed the House of Commons almost at once. He first took office in 1835

under Peel, and from that date to his death in 1898 he was one of the foremost statesmen of his age. I cannot here deal in detail with his many achievements, but must confine myself to the question with which his name is chiefly associated. The last fifteen years of his parliamentary life, and the fortunes of the Liberal party during that period, were almost wholly concerned with the question of Home Rule—that is, with the demand for an Irish Parliament sitting in Dublin. Let us hastily review the progress of affairs in Ireland since the famine which was the immediate cause of the repeal of the Corn Laws. One important result of that terrible and long-continued famine was to drive many thousands of Irish to seek new homes in Canada and the United States. The emigrant Irish people left the country with hearts full of bitterness against the British Government. Twelve years later the so-called Fenians began to appear. They received their chief support from their fellow-countrymen in America, who desired to make Ireland independent by means of a revolution.

4. In 1865 the Government received information which led them to arrest O'Donovan Rossa and several other Fenian leaders. The Fenians, it now appeared, were banded into a secret society which extended to all parts of Ireland. The Habeas Corpus Act was hastily suspended; many Fenians were seized, and others fled the country. In 1867 a Fenian plot was made to capture Chester Castle, several Fenians were rescued from the police at Manchester, and there was an attempt to blow up Clerkenwell Prison. Several lives were lost in the course of these outrages, and Parliament roused itself to do something for the relief of Irish grievances.

5. The root of the trouble was the land question and the existence of the Established Protestant Church. In July 1869 Gladstone disestablished and partially disendowed the Church of Ireland, and in 1870 he passed a Land Act which gave the evicted tenant compensation for the improvements which he had made on his holding. This Act put an end to the absolute power of the landlord ; it reduced him "to the level of every other man in the country who had anything to hire or sell."

6. After the disestablishment of the Irish Church and the passing of the Land Act, the Irish people began a new agitation for "Home Rule." The three years 1876-79 were years of bad harvests in Ireland, and widespread misery was the result. Evictions increased, and there was much lawlessness. Murders and outrages on cattle were very common, and the Government was forced to suspend the ordinary law so as to be able to imprison any one who was suspected of trying to disturb the country. The Coercion Act was followed in 1881 by a new Land Act, which appointed a Land Court to fix all rents for fifteen years.

7. The agitation in Ireland had by this time changed its character. The Land League had been formed in 1879, its object being to do away with the existing landlord system and set up peasant proprietors all over Ireland. Shopkeepers were forbidden to supply with food and clothing those who opposed it, and a system of sending such persons "to Coventry" made their lives almost insupportable. This was called "boycotting," from Captain Boycott, who was one of the first to be treated in this way.

8. So disturbed was the country that it seemed to be

drifting towards civil war. Charles Stewart Parnell and other leaders of the Irish party were imprisoned, and the League was proclaimed as "an illegal and criminal association." Parnell was released shortly afterwards, on condition (it was understood) that he would help the Government to maintain order. This, however, he was powerless to do. A short time after his release the country was horrified by the news of a dreadful crime in Phoenix Park, Dublin. Lord Frederick Cavendish, the new Chief Secretary for Ireland, and Mr. Burke, the Under-Secretary, were murdered in open day, on the path which runs through the middle of the park. A thrill of horror ran through the country, and the murderers were denounced by the leaders of the Irish party, who expressed the sorrow and shame of all right-thinking Irishmen at the foul deed.

9. The plot was revealed, and the murderers were tried and hanged. The severest Coercion Law of modern times was then passed, and was stringently carried out by Earl Spencer. The number of agrarian crimes became less, but, on the other hand, the Irish-American party attempted to strike terror into the Government by means of a number of dynamite outrages in London. For taking part in these fearful crimes two men were sent to prison for life, and others were imprisoned for shorter periods.

10. In June 1885 Gladstone's Government was defeated, and Lord Salisbury took office as Prime Minister. The change of Ministry was followed by a general election, the results of which gave neither of the two parties a decided lead. Parnell, the Irish leader, thus became master of the situation, for neither party could hold office without his

assistance. In December 1885 it was rumoured that Gladstone had made up his mind to adopt Home Rule as the only method of satisfying Ireland and of getting rid of the Irish Question. Early in 1886 these rumours were confirmed. With the assistance of the Irish party, the Conservative Government was soon overthrown, and Gladstone became Premier for the third time.

11. He at once introduced two Irish Bills. The first proposed to establish a separate Parliament for Ireland, with full control over Irish affairs, and to remove the Irish members from the Parliament at Westminster. The other was a Land Purchase Bill, to advance a sum of about £50,000,000 to help Irish tenants to purchase their farms. These proposals created intense excitement in the country and much division in the Cabinet. Several of Gladstone's fellow-ministers left him, and they were followed by a strong body of Liberal members, who formed the Liberal Unionist party. On the second reading of the Home Rule Bill, the Government was beaten by a majority of thirty.

12. Gladstone at once appealed to the country, and the general election showed a strong feeling against Home Rule. The Conservatives (three hundred and sixteen in number), combined with seventy-six Liberal Unionists, had a large majority over the one hundred and ninety-two Liberals who still followed Gladstone and the eighty-six supporters of Parnell. Gladstone therefore resigned, and Lord Salisbury, at the head of a purely Conservative Government, again took office. The Liberal Unionists promised their support, but did not enter the Ministry.

13. Lord Salisbury remained for six years at the head of affairs. During the earlier part of this period the difficulty of governing Ireland, even with the special powers given by a new Coercion Act (1887), was very great. The Land Leaguers adopted a new method, called the "Plan of Campaign," under which, on any estate marked out for action, the rents were handed over to a managing committee "to fight the landlord with." This led, of course, to evictions, and the evictions to outrage and murder. The first business of a government is to maintain the law, and Mr. (now Lord) Balfour, as Irish Secretary, discharged this task with remarkable coolness and determination. He was supported by the judges, who declared the Plan of Campaign to be illegal.

14. In consequence of certain letters which appeared in the *Times* early in 1887, one of which charged Parnell with conniving at the Phœnix Park murders, a Special Commission was appointed in 1888 to examine into the working of the Land League, and to decide whether its leaders were to blame for the outrages which had occurred. In the course of the inquiry the *Times* letters were shown to be forgeries. After sitting two years, the Commission issued a report which was regarded by some as an acquittal and by others as a verdict of guilty. In the same year (1890) Parnell was deposed from the leadership of the Irish party. He died in the following year.

15. In 1892 the Parliament of 1886 came to a natural end. A list of reforms drawn up in 1891, and called the "Newcastle Programme," was put forward by the Liberal party. In the forefront stood Home Rule. The general

election gave Gladstone, with the aid of the Irish Home Rulers, a majority of forty over the Conservatives and Liberal Unionists, and in 1893 he introduced his second Home Rule Bill. It differed from the first principally in this, that the Irish members were to have seats at Westminster as well as in Dublin. After a long discussion the Bill passed the Commons by a majority of thirty-four, but it was rejected by the House of Lords by a majority of ten to one.

16. Early in 1894 Gladstone resigned his office as Prime Minister, and withdrew altogether from parliamentary and public life. He was then in his eighty-fifth year, and his sight and hearing were much impaired. Lord Rosebery succeeded him as Prime Minister, and the Liberal party continued in office until 1895. In that year Lord Salisbury again became Prime Minister, and this time the leading Liberal Unionists joined the Ministry. In the general election which followed, the Home Rule party met with a crushing reverse. The Parliament elected in 1895 showed a majority of over one hundred and fifty for the Conservative and Unionist side.

17. After his withdrawal from public life, Gladstone retired to his beautiful home at Hawarden Castle. For a time he immersed himself in his beloved books, and, as the first-fruits of his release from political toil, produced a translation of the Odes of Horace. In 1896 his health began to fail. The last year of his life was one of continuous suffering, borne with pathetic patience. On May 19, 1898, he passed away, amidst a burst of national sorrow which was echoed by civilized nations all over the world.

45. THE BOER WAR.

1. The Boer War of 1899-1902 is not ancient history. Perhaps you know men who fought in it, and have heard from their lips an account of the battles in which they took part. Before, however, we proceed to describe the war, we must get some idea of the history of South Africa since the beginning of the nineteenth century.

2. In 1806, during the Napoleonic wars, a British force was sent to the Cape to expel, not the Dutch colonists, but the Dutch governor and soldiers. The Cape became a British possession, but the Dutch colonists remained, and their descendants are the Boers, or Dutch farmers, who are found throughout South Africa to-day. The Boers disliked being handed over to Britain, and even in these early days began to "trek" away from the settled parts. In 1837 they crossed the Orange River and formed the settlements now known as Natal, the Transvaal, and the Orange Free State. Soon after its settlement Natal became a British possession, but in time the independence of the other colonies was recognized.

3. The development of these states was greatly hindered by the hostility of the natives, and for this the harshness of the Boers was largely to blame. The Orange Free State was better off than the Transvaal in this respect, as its trouble with the Basutos had been settled by British intervention before it became independent. In 1877 the Transvaal was badly in debt, and was threatened by the hordes of the great Zulu chief Cetewayo. The Boers in their need turned to Britain for help, and the

Transvaal was annexed in that year. During the war which followed Cetewayo defeated a combined force of British soldiers and Boers at Isandlwana, and this defeat left Natal exposed to a Zulu invasion. The magnificent defence of Rorke's Drift, however, averted what might have been a great disaster, and the victory of Ulundi practically put an end to the war.

4. As soon as the debt of the Transvaal had been paid, and the power of the Zulus had been broken, the Boers began to demand independence, and in December 1880 a general rising took place. War had scarcely broken out before disaster began to overtake the British. A party of over two hundred soldiers were forced to surrender at Bronker's Spruit. To drive the Boers away from Laing's Nek, General Colley, the British commander, with six hundred men, ascended Majuba Hill, which overlooked the Boer camp. The Boers, realizing their danger, climbed the hill and inflicted a severe defeat on the British, in the course of which General Colley was killed. After this disaster Sir Evelyn Wood took command of the British forces ; but in the meantime the British Government had resolved not to continue the war, and the Transvaal regained her independence under the suzerainty of the British Crown.

5. After 1881 the republic rapidly developed, chiefly owing to the discovery of gold, which induced many new settlers to enter the state in pursuit of wealth. These "Uitlanders," or foreigners, as the Boers called them, were not able to work harmoniously with the old Dutch settlers, who wished to keep all the political power in their own hands, although the new-comers bore the greater burden of

the taxation. In 1895 some of the leading Uitlanders formed a conspiracy to overthrow the Boer Government and bring the Transvaal once more under British authority. In order to assist the movement Dr. Jameson, the administrator of Rhodesia, crossed the Transvaal border with an armed force, but was forced to surrender. This invasion caused much bitterness of feeling in the Transvaal, and, as events proved, was the forerunner of a long and desperate war.

6. Early in 1899 the Uitlanders petitioned Queen Victoria for redress of their grievances, and Sir Alfred (now Lord) Milner and Mr. Kruger, President of the Transvaal Republic, met at Bloemfontein to discuss the question. They failed to agree, and a lengthy and unsatisfactory correspondence began between the two Governments, while meantime armed Boers were gathering on the frontiers of the Transvaal and the Orange Free State. British troops were hurried to Natal, and in October the Colonial Office received an ultimatum from the Boers demanding the withdrawal of these, and an undertaking that no further troops should be landed in South Africa. Such terms, of course, could not be discussed, and war was declared.

7. The Boers were only waiting the word to invade Natal, and the early battles of the war were fought in the northern angle of that colony. The British troops, after checking the enemy at the battles of Talana and Elands-laagte, were forced to retire on Ladysmith, where they were hemmed in. At the same time Mafeking and Kimberley were invested, and the towns in the north of Cape Colony also were threatened. The first instalments of the British army now began to arrive, under the command of

Sir Redvers Buller, and an attempt was made to relieve the beleaguered places, but without success.

8. The column under Lord Methuen, which attempted the relief of Kimberley and Mafeking, successfully fought the battles of Belmont, Graspan, and Modder River, but was defeated at Magersfontein, where the Highland Brigade suffered most severely, amongst the killed being the gallant General Wauchope. After this battle Lord Methuen retired to the Modder River to await reinforcements. Meanwhile General Gatacre had been led into a trap at Stormberg, and General Buller was finding the relief of Ladysmith an impossible task. His attacks on the Boer position on the Tugela were repulsed with great loss, and although Spion Kop was captured our troops could not hold the position.

9. A change in the chief command of the British forces now took place, and the new commander-in-chief, Lord Roberts, with Lord Kitchener as chief of staff, speedily changed the aspect of affairs. It must be remembered, though, that the troops had meantime been augmented by contingents from home and from our colonies. General (afterwards Field-Marshal Lord) French, with his cavalry, relieved Kimberley, and General Cronje, the victor of Magersfontein, was forced to surrender at Paardeberg on the anniversary of Majuba. On the same day General Buller succeeded in capturing Pieter's Hill, and Ladysmith was relieved a few days later. Mafeking, after an eight months' siege, was relieved in May, and in July five thousand Boers surrendered at Naauwpoort. On September 1 Lord Roberts issued a proclamation formally

annexing the Transvaal, the Orange Free State having previously been added to the British Empire under the name of the Orange River Colony.

10. The Boer power was now practically broken, but for nearly two years they carried on an irritating guerilla warfare, necessitating on the part of our troops marches, counter-marches, and small fights innumerable. Peace was declared in 1902, and in 1904 Crown Colony government was introduced. In 1906 the Transvaal was granted self-government, and in 1907 General Botha, formerly the Boer commander-in-chief, attended the Colonial Conference in London as its first Prime Minister. The Orange River Colony also received self-government in 1907.

11. Queen Victoria died in January 1901, after a reign of more than sixty-three years—the longest reign in British history. Her eldest son, long and affectionately known to the British people as the Prince of Wales, succeeded to the throne with the title of Edward the Seventh. His brief reign was remarkable not only for his great personal popularity, but for his very general and sincere desire to advance the cause of peace throughout the world. The famous *entente cordiale* with France was made in 1904, and various long-standing differences were amicably settled. The self-government which was granted to the Transvaal in 1906 blossomed four years later into a union of the South African states. King Edward's death, in May 1910, was the occasion of great national mourning, and of remarkable demonstrations of respectful affection for the dead sovereign. His eldest surviving son succeeded to the throne as George the Fifth, and was crowned in June 1911.

46. THE WORLD WAR.

1. During our troubles in South Africa the Kaiser, Wilhelm II. of Germany, sent to the President of the South African Republic a telegram which plainly showed that he was a false friend to Great Britain. Ever since he succeeded his peace-loving father as German Emperor he had been a constant source of disquiet and irritation to other nations. His army, both in numbers and efficiency, was unequalled, and during his reign his empire had developed into a great industrial state—the rival of Great Britain in all the markets of the world.

2. When the Boer War was in its doubtful early stages he and his advisers believed that the British would be beaten, and that their empire would go to pieces. It was openly said by many Germans that if they had then possessed a powerful navy they would have been able to capture some of the British colonies. The Kaiser seized the opportunity to press his Parliament for a large grant to be devoted to the building of a navy so strong that “the next greatest naval power”—that is, Great Britain—would not be able to attack it without grave risk. The money was granted, and a navy costing more than £300,000,000 was built.

3. Why, we may ask, did Germany cast covetous eyes on the British Empire? Conscious of her power, she felt that she was marked out to be the head of a world state, yet when she attempted to extend her dominion she found many obstacles in her way. In the first place, she has a short and shallow sea-coast and but few good harbours on the North Sea, while the Baltic Sea is frozen for months

every year. She needed more and better outlets to the open ocean, yet it was clear that she could only secure them by conquest.

4. Germany was surrounded by the old-established nations —by France on the west, Russia on the east, Austria-Hungary on the south. Between her and the North Sea lay Holland and Belgium, two small countries, the soil of which is composed of the silt brought down by the Rhine. Belgium was forbidden to her by a treaty to which she herself was a party. Holland she dared not attack without bringing France, Russia, and Britain into armed conflict with her. She therefore could not expand in Europe without a war of conquest.

5. Nor was her extension easy overseas. When she was ready to make herself a world Power all the best parts of the earth had already been taken up by other nations. She found that as an empire she had been born too late. She managed to found a few colonies in Africa ; but, with the exception of Togoland and Kamerun, they were unfruitful and thankless regions. In Asia she bullied China into yielding her some territory ; but when she attempted to acquire colonies elsewhere she found herself in conflict with one or other of the Great Powers. Then, too, she had the mortification of seeing hundreds of thousands of her people settle in America or in the colonies of other nations and become lost to her. All this was very galling to the German rulers, and the Prussian military men never neglected an opportunity of urging war as a means of giving Germany what they thought to be her rightful place in the world.

6. Envy and hatred of Great Britain were fostered in every possible way. A great German historian had taught his fellow-countrymen that Britain was the enemy. She was, he said, a "robber state"; she had become mistress of more than one-fifth of the whole world by making cat's paws of other races; and she had no real right to all this territory. She could not even rule it properly, according to German ideas. If ever she had been strong and warlike, that time had long since gone by. Though she appeared to be powerful she was in fact very weak, and quite unable to hold her empire if it should be attacked by a really strong Power such as Germany.

7. So constantly was this doctrine taught that the Germans came to believe it, and in every military mess the toast of "The Day" was drunk—that is, the day on which Germany would throw down the gage of battle to Britain. The Germans confidently believed that when the day arrived they would make an end of Britain and enter into her heritage. Their philosophers had made them believe that there was nothing wrong in an attempt to seize the territory of other nations. Might, they were told, was right; the spoils of the world were to the strongest, and no nation had any right to territory which it could not defend by force of arms.

8. Bismarck, the great German Chancellor, had made the German Empire by means of three wars; the military party of Germany aimed at the Empire of the World by means of two wars. The neighbours of Germany—Russia and France—were to be overcome in the first war; the second war was to see the downfall of Britain.

9. We know how Germany prepared for the first war. Between 1906 and the middle of 1914 she four times increased her army, and in 1913 raised from her people a war levy of £50,000,000. Her object in increasing the army and in raising this money was openly stated—to fortify and extend German power throughout the whole world. In order to do this the German people were to be taught that Germany must go to war because her foes were threatening her, and that such a war would make their burdens lighter and give them a future of peace and abounding prosperity. She was unpopular because of her greatness, but that mattered nothing, for she would conquer her ill-wishers.

10. When the minds of the Germans were thus prepared, discontent was to be stirred up amongst the native peoples in French and British possessions, as well as in Russia, so that these countries would be full of revolt when war was declared. As for the small states, such as Belgium and Holland, they must be prepared to follow Germany or be conquered. If Belgium should object to the passage of a German army in order that a rapid blow could be struck at France, she must be invaded in spite of the treaty which guaranteed her neutrality. All this was arranged as far back as May 1913.

11. On the eve of the Great War the continental Powers of Europe were allied in two opposing camps. By what was known as the Triple Alliance, Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Italy had bound themselves to stand by each other in war if any one of them were attacked. Italy, however, was much aggrieved when Austria, contrary to the terms of the Triple Alliance, annexed the Slav states of

Bosnia and Herzegovina in the year 1908, and it was clear that she would probably withdraw from the combination when the Central Powers declared war. The effective part of the Triple Alliance, therefore, consisted of Germany and Austria-Hungary. In the opposite camp were France and Russia, who had formed a firm alliance and were prepared to stand or fall together. A friendship had also grown up between Britain and France, and though there was no formal alliance between them, certain arrangements had been made which encouraged the French to believe that if they were wantonly attacked they would not appeal for British assistance in vain.

12. The incident which precipitated the Great War occurred in June 1914, when the Archduke Francis Ferdinand, heir to the Austrian throne, was murdered while driving through the streets of Serajevo, the Bosnian capital. The Austrians were naturally indignant, and they fastened the blame on the Serbian Government, which was accused of fomenting conspiracies in order to bring out a southern Slav state which should include Bosnia and Herzegovina. After more than a month's delay Austria presented the Serbian Government with a series of very harsh demands, some of them of such a character that no self-respecting state could possibly accept them and still retain its independence. Serbia was ready to comply with most of these demands, and those which she could not accept she was prepared to discuss.

13. Austria, however, was bent on war. Immediately she received Serbia's reply she rejected it, and four days later her artillery was bombarding Belgrade. Russia, who

has always been the friend of Serbia, now began to call together her southern troops for the purpose of preventing Austria from overrunning Serbia. It was now clear that Europe was trembling on the verge of a war which would be certain to involve all the Great Powers. Should Austria not draw back, and Russia take the field, France, by the terms of her alliance with Russia, would be forced to fight too.

14. Sir Edward Grey, the British Foreign Minister, strove with might and main to avert war. On July 31 he succeeded in inducing Austria to discuss the questions at issue with Russia. There was now a gleam of hope in the threatening sky, but at this promising moment Germany took a step which made war inevitable. She sent an impudent message to the Tsar ordering him to cease mobilizing his troops within twelve hours on pain of war. Russia sent no answer to this message, and at midnight on August 1 Germany declared war on Russia. This meant war with France as well.

15. We now know that all along Germany had stood behind Austria, egging her on to fight, promising to assist her with the greatest and most efficient army in the world, and assuring her of a victory that would re-establish her as a great Power. There is no shadow of doubt that Germany was the evil genius that brought about the war. She believed that the moment was ripe for making herself mistress of Europe—the first step towards that world dominion which she had so long coveted, and for which she had so long prepared.

16. Germany had now to fight Russia and France—that

is, she had to wage war on two fronts—in the east against Russia, in the west against France. She knew that Russia could not mobilize quickly, and her plan was to crush France by a sudden overwhelming blow. When France was helpless she would be able to crush Russia at her leisure.

17. It was of the utmost importance that France should be attacked immediately. The easiest and quickest road into that country lay through Belgium. Despite the protests of Belgium, which Germany had sworn to maintain inviolate, she now marched her armies into that land. To gain a military advantage she had broken her solemnly plighted word. Never did a civilized nation commit a greater crime, and it was this crime which in the end brought about her ruin.

18. We British were bound in honour to stand by Belgium, whom we had sworn to protect against invasion, and we were also obliged to help France. Common prudence would not let us remain supine while the Germans overthrew the French and established themselves on the shores of the English Channel. Had we stood by with folded arms we should have been conniving at our own undoing. When once the sceptre of the Continent passed to Germany her arms would be turned against Great Britain.

19. We therefore told the Germans plainly that if they invaded Belgium we should intervene in the conflict. They had already done so, and would not draw back ; so at 11 p.m. on August 4, 1914, we declared war on Germany. Thus Armageddon began.

20. Germany had long been preparing for the war, and

her troops were ready to march at a moment's notice. The Allies, on the other hand, were more or less unprepared, and had to develop their resources as the struggle proceeded. The small Belgian army made a gallant stand, and by its dogged courage delayed the German deployment for a fortnight. The first great battle was fought in the last week of August, and resulted in a French defeat, which entailed upon the British Expeditionary Force to their left a long and costly retreat. The Allied line was not knitted up anew until the river Marne had been passed.

21. On September 6 the Allies began to advance once more. Taking advantage of a mistake on the part of the German general, they pushed forward with such determination that the enemy was forced to retire to the heights of the Aisne. From this strong position he could not be dislodged by frontal attacks. Attempts to outflank his position brought about what was called "the race to the sea." Before the close of the year friend and foe were facing each other in trench lines extending from the North Sea to the borders of Switzerland. The Germans made frenzied efforts to break out and reach the Channel ports, but in vain.

22. In effect Germany lost the war when she retreated to the heights of the Aisne and "dug in." The long trench war which followed enabled the Allies to train millions of men and manufacture supplies of artillery and munitions. In May 1915 Italy joined their side, and in April 1917 the United States of America declared war on the Central Powers. Right down to the spring of 1918 the war in the West swayed to and fro, with no great gains for either side. In March 1918 the Germans suddenly breached the southern

portion of the British line, and forced it to retreat, hoping to separate the French and British forces before the arrival of the main American armies. In July the enemy again pushed towards the Marne, but in his advance placed himself in such a position that the French and Americans were able to strike at his flanks and force him to withdraw.

23. This was the signal for the Allies to strike a succession of heavy blows which the Germans could not meet. Their people at home were war-weary, and there was much disaffection amongst the fighting men. Back they were swept, and at the eleventh hour of the eleventh day of the eleventh month of 1918 they were forced to beg for an armistice. It was granted, and Armageddon came to a sudden end.

24. War was not only waged on the Western front and at sea, but in Russia, where, in the course of the struggle, revolution broke out, and her armies fell to pieces, leaving the country a prey to Germany. There was heavy fighting also in Rumania, in the Balkans, and in Italy, as well as in the Gallipoli peninsula, Egypt, Palestine, Mesopotamia, and in the east, west, and south-west of Africa. Sixteen great nations were involved in the awful struggle, and in all some eight millions of men were killed, and many millions more maimed for life. The cost of the war brought even the victors to the verge of ruin, and the misery and waste of the long struggle bred such loathing in the hearts of suffering peoples that at the Peace Conference a determined effort was made to bring about a League of Nations which should eradicate the great curse of war from the life of civilized mankind.

Poetry for Recitation.

I. JOHNNIE COPE.

[*Sir John Cope, the leader of the Royalist army, marched from Dunbar towards Edinburgh. Prince Charlie, the Young Pretender, marched out from Edinburgh, took Cope by surprise in the early morning, and inflicted upon him a severe defeat at Prestonpans (1745).*]

1. Sir John Cope trode the north right far,
Yet ne'er a rebel he came near,
Until he landed at Dunbar,
Right early in the morning.
Hey, Johnnie Cope, are ye waking yet ?
Or are ye sleeping, I would wit ?
Oh, haste ye, get up ; the drums do beat.
Oh fie, Cope ; rise in the morning.
2. Cope wrote a letter from Dunbar :
" Come, fight me, Charlie, if ye daur ;
And I'll teach you the art of war,
If you'll meet me in the morning."
Hey, Johnnie Cope, etc.
3. When Charlie looked the letter upon,
He drew his sword the scabbard from :
" Come, follow me, my merry, merry men.—
I'll meet you, Cope, in the morning."
Hey, Johnnie Cope, etc.

4. "Now, Johnnie, be as good as your word ;
Come, let us try both fire and sword ;
And do not run like a frightened bird
That's chased from the nest in the morning.
Hey, Johnnie Cope, etc.
5. Well Johnnie Cope he heard of this,
He thought it would not be amiss
To have a horse in readiness,
To flee away in the morning.
Hey, Johnnie Cope, etc.
6. "Fie now, Johnnie, get up and rin,
The Highland bagpipes make a din ;
It's best to sleep in a whole skin,
For 'twill be a fearful morning."
Hey, Johnnie Cope, etc.
7. When Johnnie Cope at Dunbar came,
They speered at him, "Where's all your men ?"
"Sic a mist arose, I dinna ken,
For I lost them all in the morning."
Hey, Johnnie Cope, etc.
8. Troth, Johnnie Cope, ye are na blate
To come with the news of your own defeat,
And leave your men in sic a strait,
Sae early in the morning.
Hey, Johnnie Cope, etc.

2. A BALLAD OF THE BOSTON TEA-PARTY.

[Across the Atlantic Ocean, the descendants of the Pilgrim Fathers in New England and of the gentlemen settlers of the Southern States were rearing a great American nation. Much expense had been incurred by Britain in the Seven Years' War, during which the power of the French in America and India had been broken. The ministers of King George the Third desired that the colonists should pay part of this expense, and imposed taxes on tea and other articles for this purpose. But the Americans refused to pay any such taxes, declaring that they would have no taxation without representation. Feeling rose high, and the American War of Independence followed, leading to the separation of the United States from the English Crown. The throwing overboard of a cargo of tea into Boston Harbour (1773) marked the outbreak of the struggle.]

1. No ! never such a draught was poured
In palace, hall, or arbour,
As freemen brewed and tyrants quaffed
That night in Boston Harbour !
It kept King George so long awake
His brain at last got addled ;
It made the nerves of Britain shake,
With sevenscore millions saddled.
Before that bitter cup was drained,
Amid the roar of cannon,
The Western war-cloud's crimson stained
The Thames, the Clyde, the Shannon ;
Full many a six-foot grenadier
The flattened grass had measured,
And many a mother many a year
Her tearful memories treasured.
Fast spread the tempest's darkening pall,
The mighty realms were troubled,
The storm broke loose, but first of all
The Boston tea-pot bubbled !

2. An evening party—only that ;
 No formal invitation,
No gold-laced coat, no stiff cravat,
 No feast in contemplation,
No silk-robed dames, no fiddling band,
 No flowers, no songs, no dancing :
A tribe of Red men, axe in hand—
 Behold the guests advancing !
How fast the stragglers join the throng,
 From stall and workshop gathered !
The lively barber skips along,
 And leaves a chin half-lathered ;
The smith has flung his hammer down—
 The horse-shoe still is glowing ;
The truant tapster at the Crown
 Has left a beer-cask flowing ;
The cooper's boys have dropped the adze,
 And trot behind their master ;
Up run the tarry shipyard lads—
 The crowd is hurrying faster.
3. On—on to where the tea-ships ride !
 And now their ranks are forming ;
A rush, and up the *Dartmouth's* side
 The Mohawk band is swarming !
See the fierce natives ! What a glimpse
 Of paint, and fur, and feather,
As all at once the full-grown imps
 Light on the deck together !

A scarf the pig-tail's secret keeps,
A blanket hides the breeches ;
And out the cursèd cargo leaps,
And overboard it pitches !

4. Ah ! woman at the evening board,
So gracious, sweet, and purring,
So happy while the tea is poured,
So blest while spoons are stirring,
What martyr can compare with thee,
The mother, wife, or daughter,
That night, instead of best Bohea,
Condemned to milk and water !
Ah, little dreams the quiet dame
Who plies with rock and spindle
The patient flax, how great a flame
Yon little spark shall kindle !
The lurid morning shall reveal
A fire no king can smother,
Where British flint and Boston steel
Have clashed against each other !
Old charters shrivel in its track ;
His worship's bench has crumbled ;
It climbs and clasps the Union Jack,
Its blazoned pomp is humbled ;
The flags go down on land and sea
Like corn before the reapers :
So burned the fire that brewed the tea
That Boston served her keepers !

OLIVER WENDELL HOLMES.

3. THE BATTLE OF THE BALTIC.

[In 1800 Napoleon became First Consul of France for life. He was very anxious to form a coalition of the northern powers of Europe, so as to humble Britain. Denmark, which was French at heart, then possessed a fine fleet. The destruction of this at Copenhagen (1801) rendered Napoleon's project of no avail. Although only second in command to Admiral Parker, Nelson was the real hero of the battle.]

1. Of Nelson and the North
Sing the glorious day's renown,
When to battle fierce came forth
All the might of Denmark's crown,
And her arms along the deep proudly shone ;
By each gun the lighted brand,
In a bold determined hand,
And the Prince of all the land
Led them on.
2. Like leviathans afloat,
Lay their bulwarks on the brine,
While the sign of battle flew
On the lofty British line.
It was ten of April morn by the chime :
As they drifted on their path
There was silence deep as death,
And the boldest held his breath
For a time.
3. But the might of England flushed
To anticipate the scene,
And her van the fleeter rushed
O'er the deadly space between.

“Hearts of oak !” our captains cried ; when
 each gun,
From its adamantine lips,
Spread a death-shade round the ships,
Like the hurricane eclipse
Of the sun.

4. Again ! again ! again !
And the havoc did not slack,
Till a feeble cheer the Dane
To our cheering sent us back.
Their shots along the deep slowly boom—
Then ceased—and all is wail,
As they strike the shattered sail ;
Or, in conflagration pale,
Light the gloom.

5. Now joy, Old England, raise,
For the tidings of thy might,
By the festal cities’ blaze,
Whilst the wine-cup shines in light :
And yet, amidst that joy and uproar,
Let us think of them that sleep,
Full many a fathom deep,
By thy wild and stormy steep,
Elsinore.

CAMPBELL.

4. WATERLOO, 1815.

1. There was a sound of revelry by night,
And Belgium's capital had gathered then
Her Beauty and her Chivalry; and bright
The lamps shone o'er fair women and brave men
A thousand hearts beat happily; and when
Music arose with its voluptuous swell,
Soft eyes looked love to eyes which spake again,
And all went merry as a marriage bell:
But hush! hark! a deep sound strikes like a rising knell!
2. Did ye not hear it?—No; 'twas but the wind,
Or the car rattling o'er the stony street:
On with the dance! let joy be unconfined;
No sleep till morn, when Youth and Pleasure meet
To chase the glowing Hours with flying feet.
But hark!—that heavy sound breaks in once more,
As if the clouds its echo would repeat;
And nearer, clearer, deadlier than before!
Arm! arm! it is—it is—the cannon's opening roar!
3. Within a windowed niche of that high hall
Sate Brunswick's fated chieftain; he did hear
That sound the first amidst the festival,
And caught its tone with Death's prophetic ear.
And when they smiled because he deemed it near,
His heart more truly knew that peal too well
Which stretched his father on a bloody bier,
And roused the vengeance blood alone could quell:
He rushed into the field, and, foremost fighting, fell

4. Ah ! then and there was hurrying to and fro,
And gathering tears, and tremblings of distress,
And cheeks all pale, which but an hour ago
Blushed at the praise of their own loveliness ;
And there were sudden partings, such as press
The life from out young hearts, and choking sighs
Which ne'er might be repeated : who would guess
If ever more should meet those mutual eyes,
Since upon night so sweet such awful morn could rise ?
5. And there was mounting in hot haste ; the steed,
The mustering squadron, and the clattering car,
Went pouring forward with impetuous speed,
And swiftly forming in the ranks of war.
And the deep thunder peal on peal afar ;
And near, the beat of the alarming drum
Roused up the soldier ere the morning star ;
While thronged the citizens with terror dumb,
Or whispering, with white lips—"The foe ! They
come !—they come !"
6. And wild and high the "Camerons' gathering" rose !
The war-note of Lochiel, which Albyn's hills
Have heard—and heard, too, have her Saxon foes.
How in the noon of night that pibroch thrills
Savage and shrill ! But with the breath which fills
Their mountain-pipe, so fill the mountaineers
With the fierce native daring which instils
The stirring memory of a thousand years ;
And Evan's, Donald's fame rings in each clansman's ears !

7. And Ardennes waves above them her green leaves,
 Dewy with Nature's tear-drops, as they pass,
 Grieving, if aught inanimate e'er grieves,
 Over the unreturning brave,—alas !
 Ere evening to be trodden like the grass
 Which now beneath them, but above shall grow
 In its next verdure, when this fiery mass
 Of living valour, rolling on the foe,
 And burning with high hope, shall moulder cold and low.
8. Last noon beheld them full of lusty life,
 Last eve in Beauty's circle proudly gay ;
 The midnight brought the signal-sound of strife,
 The morn the marshalling in arms,—the day
 Battle's magnificently stern array !
 The thunder-clouds close o'er it, which when rent,
 The earth is covered thick with other clay,
 Which her own clay shall cover, heaped and pent,
 Rider and horse—friend, foe—in one red burial blent !

LORD BYRON.

(*Childe Harold*, Canto iii., Stanzas 21–28.)

5. WELLINGTON AND NELSON, 1852.

[*This poem is supposed to be in answer to a question put by the shade of Nelson, who lies buried in the crypt of St. Paul's Cathedral, when the funeral procession of Wellington was seen approaching.*]

Who is he that cometh, like an honoured guest,
 With banner and with music, with soldier and with
 priest,
 With a nation weeping, and breaking on my rest ?

Mighty seaman, this is he
Was great by land as thou by sea.
Thine island loves thee well, thou famous man,
The greatest sailor since our world began.
Now, to the roll of muffled drums,
To thee the greatest soldier comes ;
For this is he
Was great by land as thou by sea.
His foes were thine ; he kept us free ;
O give him welcome, this is he
Worthy of our gorgeous rites,
And worthy to be laid by thee ;
For this is England's greatest son,
He that gained a hundred fights,
Nor ever lost an English gun :
This is he that far away
Against the myriads of Assaye
Clashed with his fiery few and won :
And underneath another sun,
Warring on a later day,
Round affrighted Lisbon drew
The treble works, the vast designs
Of his laboured rampart lines,
Where he greatly stood at bay ;
Whence he issued forth anew,
And ever great and greater grew,
Beating from the wasted vines
Back to France her banded swarms,
Back to France with countless blows,
Till o'er the hills her eagles flew

Beyond the Pyrenean pines,
Followed up in valley and glen
With blare of bugle, clamour of men,
Roar of cannon and clash of arms,
And England pouring on her foes ;---
Such a war had such a close.
Again their ravening eagle rose
In anger, wheeled on Europe-shadowing wings,
And barking for the thrones of kings ;
Till one that sought but Duty's iron crown
On that loud Sabbath shook the spoiler down---
A day of onsets of despair !
Dashed on every rocky square
Their surging charges foamed themselves away ;
Last, the Prussian trumpet blew ;
Through the long-tormented air
Heaven flashed a sudden jubilant ray,
And down we swept and charged and overthrew
So great a soldier taught us there
What long-enduring hearts could do
In that world-earthquake, Waterloo !
Mighty seaman, tender and true,
And pure as he from taint of craven guile,
O saviour of the silver-coasted isle,
O shaker of the Baltic and the Nile,
If aught of things that here befall
Touch a spirit among things divine,
If love of country move thee there at all,
Be glad, because his bones are laid by thine !
And through the centuries let a people's voice

In full acclaim,
A people's voice,
The proof and echo of all human fame,
A people's voice, when they rejoice
At civic revel and pomp and game,
Attest their great commander's claim
With honour, honour, honour, honour to him,
Eternal honour to his name.

LORD TENNYSON.

6. SANTA FILOMENA.

1. When'er a noble deed is wrought,
When'er is spoken a noble thought,
Our hearts, in glad surprise,
To higher levels rise.
2. The tidal wave of deeper souls
Into our inmost being rolls,
And lifts us unawares
Out of all meaner cares.
3. Honour to those whose words or deeds
Thus help us in our daily needs,
And by their overflow
Raise us from what is low !
4. Thus thought I as by night I read
Of the great army of the dead—
The trenches cold and damp,
The starved and frozen camp—

5. The wounded from the battle-plain,
In dreary hospitals of pain---
The cheerless corridors,
The cold and stony floors.
6. Lo ! in that house of misery
A lady with a lamp I see
Pass through the glimmering gloom,
And flit from room to room.
7. And slow, as in a dream of bliss,
The speechless sufferer turns to kiss
Her shadow as it falls
Upon the darkening walls.
8. As if a door in heaven should be
Opened and then closed suddenly,
The vision came and went,
The light shone and was spent.
9. On England's annals, through the long
Hereafter of her speech and song,
That light its rays shall cast
From portals of the past.
10. A Lady with a Lamp shall stand
In the great history of the land,
A noble type of good,
Heroic womanhood.
11. Nor even shall be wanting here
The palm, the lily, and the spear---
The symbols that of yore
Saint Filomena bore.

SUMMARY OF BRITISH HISTORY, WITH DATES.

- 1688.** **William of Orange** landed at Torbay, November 5.
- 1689.** A Convention met, declared the throne vacant, and drew up **The Declaration of Rights**. (Lesson 1, par. 11.)
 William and Mary crowned joint sovereigns of Great Britain and Ireland. (Lesson 1, par. 12.)
 James landed at Kinsale in Ireland. (Lesson 3, par. 5.)
 Battle of **Killiecrankie**: Viscount Dundee defeated General Mackay. The former was killed in the battle. (Lesson 2, pars. 12 and 13.)
 James besieged **Londonderry**, which was relieved (July 28) and the siege raised. The Jacobites were defeated at **Newtown Butler**. (Lesson 3, pars. 9-13.)
- 1690.** Battle of the **Boyne**: James was defeated, and fled to France. (Lesson 4, pars. 3-5.)
- 1691.** Defeat of Irish at Aughrim. Surrender of Limerick. (Lesson 4, par. 9.)
- 1692.** The Macdonalds, who had delayed their submission to William, were attacked by soldiers whom they had received as guests. In the **Massacre of Glencoe** thirty-eight were slain, and many others perished of cold and privation. (Lesson 2, par. 14.)
 Battle of **La Hogue**: the naval power of the French destroyed. (Lesson 5, pars. 8-12.)
- 1694.** **Bank of England** founded by Paterson. (Lesson 9, par. 4.)
 Triennial Bill. (Lesson 12, par. 13.)
- 1697.** **Treaty of Ryswick**. (Lesson 6, par. 3.)
- 1698.** Darien expedition set sail from Leith. (Lesson 9, par. 6.)
- 1701.** **The Act of Settlement**, whereby the Hanoverians came to the throne. (Lesson 11, par. 5.) Death of James the Second. (Lesson 6, par. 9.)
- 1702.** Death of William the Third, and accession of **Queen Anne**. (Lesson 7, par. 10.)
 War of the Spanish Succession began. Marlborough Captain-General. (Lesson 8, par. 1.)

- 1704.** Capture of **Gibraltar** by Admiral Rooke (July 17). (Lesson 8, par. 8.)
 Battle of **Blenheim** (August 13): Marlborough defeated French and Bavarians. (Lesson 8, par. 5.)
Act of Security passed in Scotland. It declared that on Anne's death the Scots would appoint a sovereign of their own unless their demands for equal trade were conceded. (Lesson 9, par. 9.)
- 1706.** Battle of **Ramillies**. (Lesson 8, par. 9.)
- 1707.** **Act of Union** passed. (Lesson 9, par. 11.) Empire of the Moguls in India fell to pieces. (Lesson 17, par. 5.)
- 1708.** Battle of **Oudenarde**. (Lesson 8, par. 10.)
- 1709.** Battle of **Malplaquet**. (Lesson 8, par. 11.)
- 1710.** Trial of Dr. Sacheverell. Fall of the Whig Ministry. (Lesson 8, par. 14.)
- 1713.** **Treaty of Utrecht**. Britain received Gibraltar, Minorca, Nova Scotia, and Newfoundland. (Lesson 8, par. 12.)
- 1714.** Death of Queen Anne, and accession of **George the First**. (Lesson 11, pars. 2 and 5.)
- 1715.** Impeachment of Oxford, Bolingbroke, and Ormonde. Riot Act passed. (Lesson 12, pars. 2 and 3.)
First Jacobite Rebellion. Battle of **Sheriffmuir** (drawn), and surrender of Foster at Preston (November 13). (Lesson 12, pars. 5-12.)
- 1716.** Passing of the **Septennial Act**. (Lesson 12, par. 13.)
- 1720.** The **South Sea Bubble** burst. (Lesson 13, par. 7.)
- 1721.** **Sir Robert Walpole became Premier**. (Lesson 13, par. 10.)
- 1725.** **Drapier's Letters**, written by Dean Swift on the subject of Wood's Halfpence, caused agitation in Ireland. (Lesson 27, par. 7.)
 The proposed tax on beer aroused much opposition in Scotland. (Lesson 14, par. 6.) Robert Clive born. (Lesson 17, par. 3.)
- 1727.** Death of George the First, and accession of **George the Second**. (Lesson 14, par. 1.)
- 1733.** Walpole's **Excise Bill** introduced and dropped. (Lesson 14, par. 5.)
- 1736.** The Porteous Riots in Edinburgh. (Lesson 14, par. 7.)
- 1737.** Death of Queen Caroline. (Lesson 14, par. 9.)
- 1739.** Walpole forced to declare war against Spain. (Lesson 14, par. 14.)
 Admiral Vernon took Porto Bello. (Lesson 15, par. 3.)
- 1741.** Repulse of British at Cartagena. (Lesson 15, par. 3.)
- 1742.** Resignation of Walpole: made Earl of Orford. (Lesson 15, par. 3.)
- 1743.** Battle of **Dettingen**. (Lesson 15, par. 6.)

1745. Death of Walpole.
 Battle of **Fontenoy**. (Lesson 15, par. 7.)
Second Jacobite Rebellion. Prince Charles Edward Stuart defeated Cope at **Prestonpans**—marched to Derby—retreated to Scotland. (Lesson 15, par. 8.)
1746. Battle of **Falkirk** (victory for Jacobites), and battle of **Culloden** (crushing defeat of Jacobites). (Lesson 16, pars. 7-9.)
1748. **Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle**. (Lesson 16, par. 13.)
1751. Clive captured **Arcot**. (Lesson 18, par. 1.)
1756. The Black Hole of Calcutta. (Lesson 18, par. 9.)
 The **Seven Years' War** began. (Lesson 18, par. 6.)
1757. Byng shot for his failure at Minorca. (Lesson 18, par. 6.)
 Clive defeated Suraj-ud-Dowlah at battle of **Plassey** and won **Bengal**. (Lesson 18, par. 10.)
 Convention of Klosterseven. (Lesson 18, par. 6.)
1758. Nova Scotia taken by British. (Lesson 19, par. 8.)
1759. Capture of **Quebec**: death of Wolfe and Montcalm (September 13). (Lesson 20, par. 12.)
1760. British conquest of Canada completed. (Lesson 20, par. 13.)
 Death of George the Second, and accession of **George the Third**. (Lesson 21, par. 3.)
1761. Resignation of Pitt. **Bute became Premier**. (Lesson 21, par. 4.)
1763. **Peace of Paris** signed. Britain retained Canada, Florida, Minorca, and several West India Islands and the control of India. (Lesson 21, par. 5.)
1765. The **Stamp Act** passed. (Lesson 21, par. 10.) First speech of Edmund Burke in the Commons. (Lesson 22, par. 2.)
1766. The Stamp Act repealed. (Lesson 22, par. 2.) Pitt created Earl of Chatham. (Lesson 22, par. 3.)
1767. New duties on tea and various other articles imposed in America. The colonists vigorously protested. (Lesson 22, par. 3.)
1768. Chatham retired. British soldiers fired on a Boston mob. (Lesson 22, par. 4.)
 Arkwright completed his spinning-frame. (Lesson 24, par. 9.)
1773. Trial of Lord Clive. (Lesson 23, par. 9.)
 The **Boston Tea-Party** took place. (Lesson 22, par. 5.)
1775. Outbreak of the American War. Affair of **Lexington**. George Washington appointed commander-in-chief of the American army. (Lesson 22, par. 6.)
 Battle of **Bunker Hill**: won by British. (Lesson 22, par. 7.)

1776. Congress of American States published their **Declaration of Independence** (July 4). (Lesson 22, par. 8.)
1776. New York captured by British. (Lesson 22, par. 9.)
1777. General Burgoyne forced to surrender at **Saratoga**. (Lesson 22, par. 9.)
1778. Death of Chatham. (Lesson 22, par. 11.) French allied themselves with American colonists, and were subsequently joined by Spain. (Lesson 22, pars. 10 and 12.)
1779. **Siege of Gibraltar** began: ended in 1782.
Crompton invented the spinning-mule. (Lesson 24, par. 9.)
Cook murdered at Hawaii.
1781. Lord Cornwallis surrendered at **Yorktown**. (Lesson 22, par. 12.)
1782. **Independence of United States of America** acknowledged. (Lesson 22, par. 13.)
1783. **Pitt became Prime Minister**. (Lesson 23, par. 4.)
1784. Power-loom invented. (Lesson 24, par. 9.)
1787. First movement towards the abolition of slavery.
1788. Trial of Warren Hastings begun: acquitted in 1795. (Lesson 23, par. 12.)
1789. The French National Assembly met for the first time since 1614. The "Third Estate" obtained the chief power in France. Outbreak of **French Revolution**. Storming of the Bastille. New constitution established in France. (Lesson 25, pars. 6-8.)
1793. Lewis the Sixteenth executed. (Lesson 25, par. 8.)
War declared against France by Great Britain, Holland, Spain, Austria, and Prussia. British forced to evacuate Toulon, owing to the skill of Napoleon, a young artillery officer. (Lesson 25, par. 10.)
1795. Holland conquered by French. "The Directory" established in France. (Lesson 25, par. 9.)
Cape of Good Hope first taken from Dutch.
1796. Napoleon's brilliant Italian campaign. (Lesson 25, par. 11.)
The French attempted to land in Ireland and Wales, but failed. (Lesson 25, par. 13.)
1797. Battle of **St. Vincent**: Jervis defeated Spaniards. (Lesson 26, par. 1.)
Mutiny of seamen at Spithead and the Nore. (Lesson 26, par. 2.)
Battle of **Camperdown**: Duncan defeated Dutch fleet. (Lesson 26, par. 2.)
1798. Irish Rebellion. Battle of Vinegar Hill. (Lesson 28, par. 5.)
Battle of the **Nile** (August 1): French fleet almost entirely destroyed by Nelson, and Napoleon penned up in the East. (Lesson 26, par. 8.)
1799. Bonaparte beaten at Acre. (Lesson 26, par. 9.)

- 1800.** Triumph of Bonaparte at Marengo and Hohenlinden. (Lesson 26 par. 11.)
- 1801.** **Union of Parliaments of Great Britain and Ireland.** (Lesson 28, par. 11.)
Pitt resigned. Addington Ministry formed. (Lesson 29, par. 2.)
League of the Northern Powers formed against Britain. Nelson broke it up by a victory off **Copenhagen** (April 2).
French army expelled from Egypt. (Lesson 26, pars. 11-14)
- 1802.** **Treaty of Amiens.** Great Britain restored all the colonial conquests which she had made during the war, except Ceylon and Trinidad. (Lesson 26, par. 14.)
- 1803.** War declared against the French. (Lesson 29, par. 6.)
- 1804.** Napoleon became Emperor of the French. (Lesson 29, par. 9.)
- 1805.** Napoleon prepared to invade England. (Lesson 29, par. 8.)
Calder's action off **Finisterre** (July 27). (Lesson 29, par. 11.)
Battle of **Trafalgar**: destruction of French and Spanish fleets, and death of Nelson (October 21). (Lesson 30, par. 2.)
Battle of **Austerlitz** (December 2). (Lesson 25, par. 3.)
- 1806.** Death of William Pitt (January 23). (Lesson 30, par. 7.)
"Berlin Decrees" issued (November 20). (Lesson 30, par. 9.)
- 1807.** Gas first used for street lamps in London.
Treaty of Tilsit between Napoleon and the Tsar. (Lesson 30, par. 8.)
- 1808.** Wellesley landed at Mondego Bay (Portugal). (Lesson 31, par. 5.)
Junot beaten by Wellesley at **Vimiera**. (Lesson 31, par. 6.)
- 1809.** Battle of **Corunna**, and death of Moore. (Lesson 31, par. 9.)
Wellesley invaded Spain and won battle of **Talavera**, but was forced to retreat into Portugal. (Lesson 31, par. 12.)
- 1810.** George the Third became insane. The Prince of Wales was made Regent.
Wellington spent the winter in the **lines of Torres Vedras**.
Massena forced to retreat. (Lesson 31, par. 14.)
Battle of **Fuentes d'Onoro**. (Lesson 31, par. 15.)
Battle of **Albuera**. (Lesson 31, par. 15.)
Comet steamboat began to ply upon the Clyde.
- 1812.** Wellington stormed **Ciudad Rodrigo** and **Badajoz**, and won the battle of **Salamanca**. (Lesson 32, par. 4.)
Napoleon invaded Russia and captured Moscow, which was found to be deserted and in flames. He was forced to retreat, and this disaster encouraged the Prussians to rise against him. (Lesson 31, par. 17.)

- 1813.** Battle of **Vittoria**. (Lesson 32, par. 5.)
 Napoleon defeated at **Leipzig**. (Lesson 32, par. 3.)
- 1813.** Wellington defeated French at **Toulouse**. (Lesson 32, par. 6.)
- 1814.** The allies entered Paris. (Lesson 32, par. 6.)
First Peace of Paris signed. Napoleon banished to Elba. (Lesson 32, par. 6.)
- Lewis the Eighteenth became King of France. (Lesson 32, par. 7.)
- 1815.** Napoleon escaped from Elba. (Lesson 32, par. 10.)
 The "Hundred Days." (Lesson 32, par. 12.)
 Battle of **Waterloo** (June 18). (Lesson 33, par. 10.)
- 1816.** Great misery amongst poor. Lord Exmouth bombarded Algiers, a nest of pirates.
- 1819.** Great discontent throughout the country. Political meetings were broken up.
- 1820.** Death of George the Third, and accession of **George the Fourth**.
 British settlers arrived in Cape Colony. (Lesson 45, par. 3.)
- 1829.** **Catholic Relief Bill** passed. (Lesson 38, par. 3.)
- 1830.** George the Fourth died, and was succeeded by **William the Fourth**. (Lesson 34, par. 6.)
 Liverpool and Manchester Railway opened (September 15). (Lesson 36, par. 4.)
- 1831.** The **Reform Bill** of Lord John Russell passed by a majority of **one**. (Lesson 34, par. 8.)
 King dissolves Parliament. Reformers returned with a majority of 136. New Bill passed Commons by 109. Thrown out by Lords (October). Great disturbance in the country. New Bill introduced—passed Commons and was mutilated in Lords. Grey resigned. Wellington failed to form a Ministry. Grey returned to office, and was empowered to create sufficient peers to pass the Bill. The peers yielded, and the Bill was passed (June). (Lesson 34, par. 10.)
- 1833.** Slavery finally abolished. (Lesson 45, par. 4.)
 The first Peel Ministry formed. (Lesson 38, par. 4.)
- 1835.** **Municipal Reform Bill** passed.
- 1837.** Death of William the Fourth, and accession of **Victoria**. (Lesson 35, par. 1.)
- 1838.** The **Chartist** agitation began. The "People's Charter" contained six points: (1) Annual Parliaments, (2) universal suffrage, (3) vote by ballot, (4) abolition of the property qualification for members of Parliament, (5) the payment of members, and (6) equal electoral districts.
 The **Anti-Corn-Law League** formed. (Lesson 37, par. 10.)

1839. An expedition was sent to Afghanistan: Kabul was entered by the British. (Lesson 41, par. 2.)
Republic of Natal formed. (Lesson 45, par. 4.)
1840. **Penny Postage** was introduced by the efforts of Rowland Hill, who successfully advocated a uniform rate by weight alone irrespective of distance. (Lesson 35, par. 3.)
1841. **Sir Robert Peel became Prime Minister.** (Lesson 38, par. 4.)
1842. Peel reduced the duties on 750 articles, and imposed an income tax. (Lesson 38, par. 8.)
Lord Shaftesbury's Mine and Colliery Bill was passed. It abolished apprenticeship in mines, and prevented women and boys under thirteen from working underground. (Lesson 35, pars. 14 and 15.)
The British envoy in Afghanistan was treacherously shot, and the army destroyed, all but one man (Dr. Brydon), in retreating through the Khaibar Pass. (Lesson 41, par. 3.)
Natal proclaimed a British colony. (Lesson 45, par. 4.)
1845. The potato crop failed in Ireland; frightful famine resulted, and was followed by wholesale emigration. (Lesson 37, par. 12.)
1846. Peel carried the **Repeal of the Corn Laws.** (Lesson 37, par. 14.)
Peel resigned. **Lord John Russell became Prime Minister.** (Lesson 37, par. 14.)
1848. This year is called **the year of revolution.** There were risings in all the capitals of Europe.
War took place with the Sikhs. They were finally overcome at **Gujerat**, and the **Punjab** was formally annexed to the British Empire (1849). (Lesson 41, par. 4.)
Battle of Boomplaats. (Lesson 45, par. 5.)
1850. Sir Robert Peel died. (Lesson 38, par. 10.)
1851. The **Great Exhibition** was held in Hyde Park, London. (Lesson 31, par. 2.)
1852. Lord John Russell resigned. **Lord Derby became Prime Minister** (February); resigned (December). **Lord Aberdeen**, at the head of a Coalition Ministry, **became Prime Minister.** Mr. Gladstone was Chancellor of the Exchequer in this Ministry.
1853. Mr. Gladstone introduced his **first Budget.**
The **Eastern Question** was revived. The Tsar Nicholas claimed to be the protector of all Christians within the Turkish Empire. (Lesson 39, par. 6.) This was resisted, and Russia occupied Moldavia and Wallachia; Great Britain and France became the allies of Turkey against Russia. (Lesson 39, par. 7.)
1854. The **Crimean War** began (March). (Lesson 39, par. 10.)

1854. The battle of the **Alma** took place (September); **Sebastopol** was besieged (October); the battle of **Balaklava**, famous for the charges of the Heavy Brigade and the Light Brigade, took place (October); the battle of **Inkermann** was fought (November). (Lesson 40, pars. 4-9.)
Orange River Free State formed. (Lesson 45, par. 4.)
1855. Owing to the bad management of the Crimean War, Lord Aberdeen was forced to resign. **Lord Palmerston became Prime Minister.** (Lesson 40, par. 13.)
The French captured the Malakoff. (Lesson 40, par. 15.)
The **fall and evacuation of Sebastopol** took place (September). (Lesson 40, par. 15.)
1856. **Oudh** was annexed. Outram was placed in charge of the province. (Lesson 41, par. 5.)
The **Newspaper Stamp** was abolished.
The Crimean War was closed by the **Treaty of Paris** (March). By this treaty Russia pledged herself not to keep vessels of war in the Black Sea. (This provision was cancelled by the Congress of London in 1871.) (Lesson 40, par. 17.)
1857. The **Indian Mutiny** began with outbreaks of the Sepoys at Meerut and Delhi (May); the **Massacre of Cawnpur** was carried out by order of Nana Sahib (July); **Delhi**, which was garrisoned by 30,000 rebels and besieged by 8,000 British, was captured in September; **Lucknow** was relieved temporarily in September, and finally by Sir Colin Campbell in November. (Lessons 41 and 42.)
1858. **The supremacy of the East India Company came to an end;** India was transferred to the Crown; Queen Victoria was proclaimed in India. (Lesson 42, par. 7.)
The **Fenian** movement in Ireland began. (Lesson 44, par. 4.)
1860. The **Paper Duty** was abolished.
1863. The Prince of Wales (afterwards Edward the Seventh) married the Princess Alexandra of Denmark.
1865. Lord Palmerston died.
1866. Mr. Gladstone introduced a **Reform Bill**, which was rejected; the Liberal Government was defeated. **Lord Derby became Prime Minister.**
1867. Mr. Disraeli introduced a **Reform Bill**; the Bill was carried. It extended the franchise to householders in boroughs and to lodgers occupying the same lodgings for a year and paying an annual rent of £10. (Lesson 34, par. 12.)
The Fenian movement was crushed. (Lesson 44, par. 4.)

1868. The general election gave the Liberals an enormous majority, and **Mr. Gladstone became Prime Minister.**
1869. **The Irish Church** was disestablished. (Lesson 44, par. 5.)
1870. **The first Irish Land Act** was passed. It prevented landlords from evicting tenants without paying compensation for improvements. (Lesson 44, par. 5.)
- Mr. Forster's **Education Act** was passed: it established School Boards. What is called compulsory education was introduced in 1876.
- Kimberley diamond mines and district acquired by the British.
1872. **The Ballot Act** was passed. It made voting secret, and did away with the old scenes on the hustings. (Lesson 34, par. 12.)
1874. Mr. Gladstone resigned. **Mr. Disraeli became Prime Minister.**
1876. Mr. Disraeli was raised to the peerage as **Lord Beaconsfield.**
- Queen Victoria proclaimed **Empress of India.** (Lesson 42, par. 7.)
1877. The Russo-Turkish War broke out. Russia became the champion of the Servians, Bulgarians, and Montenegrins, who were groaning beneath the tyranny of the Turk. Turkey was beaten, and peace was made by the Treaty of San Stefano.
- The **Home Rule** party, founded by Isaac Butt in 1873, became powerful under the leadership of **Mr. Parnell.** (Lesson 44, par. 6.)
- The Transvaal annexed (April 12). (Lesson 45, par. 7.)
1878. The **Berlin Congress** met for the purpose of discussing the Eastern Question in general and the Treaty of San Stefano in particular. By this treaty, Roumania, Servia, and Montenegro were made independent, and Bulgaria became a free tributary state.
- Afghanistan was invaded; the Ameer, Shere Ali, fled, and his son, Yakooob Khan, was set up in his place. Major Cavagnari and his escort were murdered. A second invasion took place under General Roberts, and Abdurrahman was recognized as Ameer (1880). The British troops withdrew after restoring our prestige. (Lesson 42, par. 11.)
1879. The "**Dual Control**" of France and Great Britain in Egypt was established. (Lesson 43, par. 7.)
- The **Irish Land League** was formed. (Lesson 44, par. 7.)
- The Zulu War: battles of Isandlwana, Rorke's Drift, and Ulundi. Cetewayo's power broken. (Lesson 45, par. 8.)
1880. Lord Beaconsfield resigned. **Mr. Gladstone again became Prime Minister.**
- Rising in the Transvaal. (Lesson 45, par. 9.)
1881. Lord Beaconsfield died.

1881. The **second Irish Land Act** was passed. An Irish Land Commission was established, which had the power of fixing fair rents for tenants who applied to the court. (Lesson 44, par. 6.)
Arrest of Mr. Parnell and other members of the Land League. They were imprisoned in Kilmainham Jail. (Lesson 44, par. 9.)
 British defeat at **Majuba Hill** (February 26). (Lesson 45, par. 9.)
1882. **Lord Frederick Cavendish**, Chief Secretary for Ireland, and **Mr. Burke**, his secretary, were murdered in Phoenix Park, Dublin. (Lesson 44, par. 9.)
 A rebellion, headed by Arabi Pasha, took place in Egypt against the control of foreigners. The French would not interfere, so Britain undertook the **bombardment of Alexandria**. Lord Wolseley defeated Arabi at the battle of **Tel-el-Kebir**. (Lesson 43, par. 6.)
1884. **General Gordon** was besieged by the Mahdi in Khartum. A relief expedition under Lord Wolseley arrived too late; Gordon was killed. (Lesson 43, par. 11.)
1885. The **third Reform Bill**, extending the franchise to agricultural labourers, was passed. (Lesson 34, par. 13.)
 A general election took place. **Mr. Gladstone became Prime Minister** for the third time (February 1886). (Lesson 44, par. 10.)
1886. Mr. Gladstone introduced two Irish Bills, one for **Home Rule**, and the other a **Land Purchase Bill**: the Government was beaten on the second reading of the Home Rule Bill by a majority of 30. (Lesson 44, par. 11.)
 Parliament was dissolved. **Lord Salisbury became Prime Minister** at the head of a Conservative Government, supported by the Liberal Unionists. (Lesson 44, par. 12.)
 The **annexation of Upper Burma** took place. (Lesson 42, par. 11.)
1887. A new Coercion Act was passed for Ireland. The "**Plan of Campaign**" was adopted by the Land Leaguers; rents were paid to agents of the League instead of to the landlord. (Lesson 44, par. 13.)
1888. A **Special Commission** was appointed to examine into the working of the Land League. (Lesson 44, par. 14.)
 The **Local Government Act** was passed.
1890. Mr. Parnell was deposed from the leadership of the Irish party. (Lesson 44, par. 14.)
1891. Mr. Parnell died. (Lesson 44, par. 14.)
 The "**Newcastle Programme**" was put forward by the Liberal party; Home Rule was placed in the forefront of the programme. (Lesson 44, par. 15.)

- 1891.** The **Assisted Education Act** was passed. It made elementary education free in nearly all the schools.
- 1892.** A general election took place. **Mr. Gladstone became Prime Minister** for the fourth time. (Lesson 44, par. 15.)
- 1893.** The **second Home Rule Bill** was introduced. It passed the Commons by a majority of 34, but was rejected by the Lords by a majority of ten to one. (Lesson 44, par. 15.)
- 1894.** The **Local Government Act**, which was passed to complete the Act of 1888, established District Councils, Parish Councils, and Parish Meetings to take the place, with enlarged powers, of Vestries and Local Boards of Health.
Mr. Gladstone resigned. **Lord Rosebery became Prime Minister.** (Lesson 44, par. 16.)
- 1895.** Lord Rosebery resigned. **Lord Salisbury again became Prime Minister.** (Lesson 44, par. 16.)
A general election took place, resulting in a crushing reverse for the Radical and Home Rule party. (Lesson 46, par. 16.)
The Jameson Raid. (Lesson 45, par. 5.)
- 1896.** The **reconquest of the Sudan** was begun, after it had been sealed for nearly fifteen years (June). (Lesson 43, par. 12.)
- 1897.** The **Diamond Jubilee of Queen Victoria.** Procession through London to St. Paul's on June 22nd.
Severe and prolonged fighting took place on the **North-west Frontier of India.** (Lesson 42, par. 10.)
- 1898.** The battle of the **Atbara** was fought in the Sudan. The Khalifa, the Mahdi's successor, was defeated with great loss (April). (Lesson 43, par. 12.)
Imperial Penny Postage was sanctioned.
The death of Mr. Gladstone took place at Hawarden Castle (May 19). (Lesson 44, par. 17.)
The battle of **Omdurman** was fought, and the Khalifa's power was annihilated. (Lesson 43, par. 12.)
- 1899.** The **Boer War** began (October). (Lesson 46, par. 3.) Battles of Talana Hill and Elands-laagte; siege of Ladysmith began. (Lesson 45, par. 7.) Battles of Belmont, Graspan, Modder River, Magersfontein, and Colenso (December). (Lesson 45, par. 8.)
- 1900.** Relief of Kimberley (February); Cronje's surrender at Paardeberg (February 27, anniversary of Majuba Hill); relief of Ladysmith (February 28); relief of Mafeking (May). **Annexation of Free State** (May). Lord Roberts's march to Pretoria (June 1). **Transvaal annexed** (September 1). (Lesson 45, par. 9.)

1901. **Federation of Australia** accomplished (January 1).
 Guerilla warfare in South Africa. (Lesson 45, par. 10.)
 Death of Queen Victoria (January 22), and accession of **Edward the Seventh**.
1902. **Peace signed at Pretoria** (May 31). (Lesson 45, par 10.)
 Coronation of Edward the Seventh.
1903. Mr. Chamberlain proposed changes in the **fiscal policy** of the country. (Lesson 38, par. 11.)
1904. Crown Colony government in Transvaal Colony and Orange River Colony. (Lesson 45, par. 10.)
- 1904-5. **Russo-Japanese War**.
1905. Mr. Balfour's Government resigned. Liberal Government formed under **Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman**.
1906. General election (January and February). Liberal majority.
Self-government granted to Transvaal. General Botha first Premier of the Transvaal. (Lesson 45, par. 10.)
1907. **Self-government** granted to Orange Free State.
New Zealand becomes a Dominion.
1908. **Arbitration Treaty** between Great Britain and the United States.
 Death of Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman. Mr. H. H. Asquith became Prime Minister.
1909. Old Age Pensions came into operation.
1910. **Union of South Africa** established.
 First Labour Exchanges opened.
 Death of Edward the Seventh and accession of **George the Fifth**.
 General election. Liberal Government formed under Mr. Asquith.
1911. **Parliament Bill** passed in House of Lords.
National Insurance Bill passed.
 Coronation Durbar of the King-Emperor at Delhi.
1914. **War declared by Great Britain on Germany** (August 4).
Home Rule Act.
1918. Armistice with Germany (November 11).

